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ABSTRACT

This guide is designed for K-12 teachers, administrators, and local curriculum committees to help them clarify the purposes of social studies and use constructive strategies for instructional improvement. It is based on the ideas that social studies is basic to the education of citizens and that social studies curricula ought to be determined locally within the framework of state law. There are nine chapters. The first chapter discusses the purpose of the guide. A definition of social studies and basic sources of information upon which social studies teachers may draw are provided in chapter two. Chapter three discusses how to develop a social studies curriculum at the local level. The fourth chapter examines basic assumptions--values, controversy, and social studies--to consider when developing rationales for social studies programs. Goals and objectives and how to develop a K-12 sequence for social studies are the topics of chapters five and six. Chapter seven discusses resources for and types of social studies learning activities. How to select instructional materials and evaluation techniques are dealt with in chapters eight and nine. The appendix cites resources for social studies teachers including national organizations, organizations specific to Missouri, and museums and historic sites. (Author/RM)

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A Guide to Social Studies Curriculum Development for Missouri Educators

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1980
Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education
***Arthur L. Mallory,* Commissioner of Education**

Foreword

Over and over again the Revolutionary generation, both liberal and conservative in outlook, asserted their faith that the welfare of the Republic rested upon an educated citizenry and that republican schools–especially free, common, public schools–would be the best means of educating the citizenry in the civic values, knowledge, and obligations required of everyone in a democratic republican society.

R. Freeman Butts in "Historical Perspective on Civic Education in the United States," 1977.

Today, as in the past, we must keep that faith. Our schools must strive to produce the educated citizenry our society requires. That task is especially complex today, for the United States is part of an increasingly interdependent global system. Dec sions made in this country affect not only our own individual and collective destinies, but also affect other nations and other peoples. Decisions made in other countries affect the resources we use, the products we buy, and our international relations. It is important that our citizens understand these relationships, as well as the relationships among different groups within our own country.

Public schools have a major responsibility to help children and young people learn about the socially, economically and politically complex world in which they live. One subject area—social studies—encompasses much of the knowledge, skills and attitudes needed by citizens. Nonetheless, every teacher and every school program should relate positively to the challenge of educating citizens, and the school itself should operate in a manner consistent with the ideals of democracy.

This guide represents the work of many Missouri teachers and administrators. They have assembled ideas from the state and nation and have suggested goals and objectives to help Missouri educators improve their social studies programs. The guide does not provide simple answers to complex questions. It offers, instead, suggestions to help local schools address these questions in a constructive manner which is appropriate and practical for each community.

As educators, we must dedicate ourselves to the task of teaching for and about citizenship. It is my hope that this guide will help define the dimensions of our responsibility, provide a useful framework for effective programs, and make it easier for us to be successful.

Arthur L. Mallory
Commissioner of Education

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Chapter I
Using This Guide

Purpose of the Guide

In Missouri, the public school curriculum in social studies is determined mainly by local educators and school boards. Missouri's emphasis on local control of curriculum has had at least two consequences:

1. In some districts local educators have given careful thought to priorities in social studies and have developed programs that they and their communities like. Moreover, as they worked on their districts' curricula, social studies teachers have shared ideas and increased their professional competence.
2. In other districts, there is dissatisfaction with the local social studies program. In some cases each teacher decides what to teach and what books to use, leaving no logical course sequence from grade to grade. In other cases hasty decisions are made about what books to use, and those books determine the curriculum. Sometimes, local uneasiness with the social studies program leads elementary teachers to deemphasize or decrease the amount of time devoted to teaching social studies.

The margins of this guide are wide so that you, the reader, have space to write in your reactions.

This guide is based on the ideas that social studies is basic to the education of citizens and that social studies curricula ought to be determined locally within the framework of state law (see Chapter VI). We believe in local effort to determine curriculum for these reasons:

1. Making curriculum decisions locally draws upon the professional talents of local educators and the unique resources of the local community.
2. Making curriculum decisions locally encourages local social studies educators to communicate with each other. Such communication stimulates professional growth and curriculum expertise in the local faculty.
3. Making curriculum decisions locally builds local commitment to the importance of the local program.

To develop a quality social studies program requires more than the swish of a magic wand. It requires time and mental effort and it involves frustrations. It also has its rewarding moments, especially as the faculty discovers it is gaining expertise in social studies, as it forges common commitments, as it learns new ideas, and as it develops a better program.

This guide is not a substitute for hard work at the local level. Rather, it is a tool to help local curriculum development efforts to be more productive. The guide is designed for teachers, administrators, and local curriculum committees to help them clarify the purposes of social studies and use constructive strategies for instructional improvement. Even with this guide many hours will need to be spent by educators of local districts that want genuine improvements in their social studies programs. To expect otherwise would be as unrealistic as expecting General Motors to develop a quality car without allocating time and money to design and engineer the car.

For whom was this guide written?

The guide was written for three audiences:

1. For *teachers* of social studies, elementary and secondary.
2. For *curriculum leaders* in social studies (curriculum committee members, curriculum directors, department heads, and social studies supervisors).
3. For *school administrators* (superintendents and principals) and boards of education.

Many sections of this guide will be of special interest to members of these groups. Table 1, "How this guide is organized," illustrates which sections of the guide will be useful to which groups, using the symbols *T* for teachers, *L* for curriculum leaders, and *A* for school administrators. These symbols also appear at the beginning of new chapters to aid users of the guide.

How do local educators use this guide?

How individuals use this guide depends upon their needs and purposes. Here are some examples:

- *Mrs. Simon wants some ideas on activities she may use in her classroom.* She should turn directly to Chapter VII.
- *The Fort Williams School District wants to select new social studies textbooks for most social studies classes.* The district should examine Chapter VIII. In the process of selecting textbooks the district may want to specify objectives for social studies (Chapter V), and it might want to reach agreement on how it will define social studies (Chapter II).
- *The Meredith Village School District wants to determine what content should be taught in the high school grades.* The district should examine Chapter VI. It might also examine Chapters IV and V.
- *Mr. Cole wants to get some ideas on how he might teach students more effectively in his classroom.* He should examine Chapters II, VII, and IX.
- *An election will come up soon. Baxter County R-IV School District wants to develop a position paper on how its social studies program should deal with controversial questions like the upcoming election.* The district should certainly examine Chapters IV and V.
- *Green Valley School District plans to develop new social studies guides. It is not certain what it wants included in its guides and is not certain how to proceed.* The district should examine Chapter III.
- *Ms. Lang wants to examine a set of objectives as she plans a new unit.* She should examine Chapter V.

In such cases as these the guide will not present easy answers to complex questions. It will offer ideas to provoke thought and discussion; it will offer some material that can be adapted, reproduced, and used as handouts for committees; and it will suggest procedures for local curriculum decision making. Committee heads using this guide are urged to use this material to involve the local staff actively. For example, the outline of assumptions related to values and social studies of Chapter IV could be reproduced and given to the faculty with these directions: "Examine this outline as if it were a draft by a committee of teachers in our district. Mark any changes you want to see made."

If this guide helps local educators engage in serious, disciplined, rational thought related to social studies curriculum, it will have served its purpose.

Table I
How this guide is organized

Chapter Number	Question to which the chapter is addressed	Main Intended Audiences
1	a. What is the purpose of this guide? b. How is this guide organized? c. How should this guide be used?	T,L,A
2	a. How is social studies defined? b. What is the mission of social studies? c. What does the domain of social studies include?	T,L,A
3	a. Why develop guides for social studies at the local level? b. What might a local curriculum guide include? c. Who should be involved in developing a local guide? d. How should the guide be developed?	T,L,A
4	a. Why should social studies be concerned with values? b. What is a reasonable set of assumptions that pertain to teaching about values in American society?	T,L,A
5	a. What types of goals and objectives ought to be emphasized in social studies? b. How can local educators determine goals and objectives in social studies?	T,L,A
6	a. What does the state require of Missouri public school students in social studies? b. What content ought to be included in balanced social studies programs? c. What basic principles govern the sequencing of content? d. How should the K-6 social studies sequence be determined? e. How should the 7-12 social studies sequence be determined? f. How should local districts decide what to require for high school graduation?	T,L,A
7	a. What are characteristics of quality activities in social studies? b. What resources might teachers use to find creative activities? c. What sorts of activities should be used in primary grades, in middle school grades, in high school? (Examples are described)	T
8	What is a rational process for selecting textbooks? (Concrete procedures and checklists are provided.)	T,L,A
9	a. Why is evaluation needed in social studies? b. How does one go about conducting an evaluation? c. What procedures should be used for districtwide evaluations? d. What procedures should be used for evaluating individual students? (Concrete examples are provided.) e. How might a local school district use the National Council for the Social Studies *Curriculum Guidelines* to assist in program evaluations?	T,L,A
Appendix	What resources might social studies teachers use for professional growth and for instructional planning?	T,L

Chapter II
The Domain of Social Studies

(What is social studies? Why is social studies important?)

"I know no safe depository of the ultimate powers of the society but the people themselves; and if we think them not enlightened enough to exercise their control with a wholesome discretion, the remedy is not to take it from them, but to inform their discretion by education."

Thomas Jefferson, 1820

Jefferson's rationale for education, valid in his own time, continues to be valid today, especially when we consider the power of modern governments, the gravity of pressing global problems, and the complexity of today's public issues. Scientific technology and public policy have expanded and complicated the options facing citizens and governments. "Time bombs" are also ticking, such as rapid population growth, crisis spots in the world, persistent unemployment in certain sectors of our economy, environmental pollution, and energy shortages, to name a few. If ever Americans needed competence in making decisions—based upon understanding of their heritage, commitment to democratic values, and responsibility to self, society, and world—the time is now. Such competence is needed to help assure for future generations of Americans the opportunity to live rich lives in freedom.

Social studies, more than any other subject area, has responsibility for developing decision-making competence and for promoting understanding of how individuals, groups, governments, and economic systems on this planet relate to each other. Such understanding provides a perspective Americans need for dealing with the social questions of today and tomorrow.

☑ **Idea for staff development:** *Is civic competence a major purpose of education? Of social studies? Is the local school district developing civic competence: How could it do so better? Such ideas could be discussed at inservice sessions.*

Social Studies Defined

"Social studies" in this guide is defined as an area within the school curriculum that draws ideas from a variety of areas, including history, the social sciences, and the humanities, for purposes of citizenship education.

"Citizenship education" may be defined narrowly as the study of politics, or it may be defined much more broadly. The authors of this guide recommend a broad definition: citizenship education is defined here as instruction directed at helping students become more effective as individuals and as participants in various groups to which they belong, including family, school, private associations, city, state, nation, and global system. Citizenship education helps students understand and exercise rights and responsibilities related to the functions and governance of those groups. Since people of all ages are citizens, citizenship education should begin in preschool years and continue beyond high school. Social studies curriculum, organized for citizenship education, is concerned with helping students:

- Understand and respect themselves.
- Understand and respect others, valuing diversity in this diverse nation and world.

☑ **Idea for staff development:** *Make multiple copies of this section. Present it as a draft for the local faculty to modify and develop their own position on how to define social studies. Use the staff's position in the local social studies guide.*

One cannot understand and act responsibly in this world without understanding systems and their interdependence.

- Communicate and work well with others.
- Understand how individuals, groups, organizations, and social systems function and relate to each other.
- Inform themselves about current social issues and emerging trends.
- Solve problems; discuss, make, and carry out decisions rationally and responsibly.
- Relate present to past and future, placing current problems in broader perspectives.
- Understand our heritage, appreciating how much the world of today is a result of the actions of all sorts of men and women of earlier generations, appreciating how much the world of tomorrow will be affected by our actions today.

Sources of ideas for the social studies curriculum

☑ **Idea for staff development:** *To what extent does the local district utilize the seven sources of knowledge listed here? How does it use each of those sources? Such ideas could be discussed at an inservice session.*

Social studies is a more complex subject area than most others. One reason is that it draws upon several academic disciplines, as well as upon other sources of information. Effective social studies teachers call upon several sources of knowledge in their instruction:

1. The students
2. The community
3. History
4. The social sciences
5. Philosophy
6. The arts
7. The media (press, radio, and television)

1. The Students

As noted in the illustration below, students learn ideas about their social worlds from many sources. They do not enter the classroom with minds like blank sheets for teachers to write on. They have ideas; they have attitudes; they have skills to help them process and evaluate information. Even

Examples of Influences upon Students' Social Knowledge and Attitudes

kindergarten children have conceptions of equality, fairness, and authority. They also have knowledge about their community and about business in it. As they get older, news broadcasts on television become more meaningful, and they become more aware of decisions significant adults around them make as consumers, voters, and producers. They also learn much about human relationships, about rules and laws, and about how groups make decisions. In addition, their capacity to imagine what life was like in the past and what life is like in other places increases as they get older.

What students learn is not limited to what teachers teach.

Psychological research and daily teaching has much to tell us about our students. For example:

- *Children within all age groups vary in many ways,* such as intelligence, skills, fears, interests, physical and emotional development, knowledge, values, creativity, self-esteem, need to be independent, need for extrinsic rewards, and attention span. Those variations—and others—add much to the complexity and challenge of teaching.
- *Children change as they get older.* They change viewpoint from being able to consider events only from their own viewpoint (egocentrism) to being able to consider events from the perspectives of others (empathy). They change from being able to think simplistically about problems, considering only one variable at a time, to being able to think about the complexities of problems where many variables are involved. They also change from feeling a need for adult approval to feeling a need for approval mainly by peers, to feeling a need, in many cases, mainly for self-approval.
- *Children (and adults) at all ages have certain special needs.* These needs include the need to be accepted, needed, approved, competent, and proud of oneself.

The rate and extent of these changes varies from person to person.

A social studies program consistent with the definition of social studies in this guide should be a setting for active student involvement. Even in primary grades students could help formulate and revise certain classroom rules, observe the community in action, and simulate the community in the classroom. They need opportunities to express ideas, to relate new information to those ideas, and to evaluate their own ideas and those of their peers in order to correct misconceptions and refine and expand their thinking. In fact, some social studies programs in Missouri involve students in the adult world of work and politics and help them use those experiences, together with reading and discussion, to clarify their conceptions of the community and American society. Study after study, however, has revealed that the role of students in most social studies classrooms is that of passive recipient of information, with the student usually expected to function like a sponge, soaking up material and releasing it later at the direction of someone else. *Such a role for students must change in any program that is honestly concerned with citizenship education.*

2. The Community

Students may hear lectures or read about families, communities, businesses, governments, and all sorts of events and social institutions. Some of those students will listen, read, and review so effectively that they will earn high scores on tests on those topics. Yet such learning might be very shallow and meaningless to the students.

The philosopher John Dewey and the psychologist Jean Piaget offer useful ideas on how to help make learning more meaningful for students. They maintain that learners grow in their capacity to understand the dynamics of our world by acting upon the world and by thinking about their actions and the consequences that follow. One can *read* about families, communities, businesses, and governments; yet one also *lives* in families and communities and *interacts* daily with businesses and governments. In short, one may read about all sorts of social activity; yet everyone is constantly interacting with

The local community can be a source of numerous learning opportunities often overlooked by teachers. Hermann, Mo., for example, offers the student a richer understanding of Missouri's heritage.

others. Such interactions hold meaningful potential for learning for the student. Effective social studies teachers find ways to structure and capitalize upon students' direct experiences with their communities and help students draw conclusions from their experiences. Young children especially need direct observations and interactions with their environment in order to understand it. Even the insights of adults are enlarged by direct experience with their community (e.g., a teacher who has read much about the police gains still deeper understanding about the life of a police officer by spending an evening riding in a police patrol car).

"In Piaget's terms, you have to reach out to the world with your own intellectual tools and grasp it, assimilate it, yourself. All kinds of things are hidden from us–even though they surround us–unless we know how to reach out for them. Schools and teachers can provide materials and questions in ways that suggest things to be done with them; and children, in the doing, cannot help being inventive."
Duckworth, 1972.

The following activity, reported by Loren Weybright (1978, p. 24) provides an example of the rich possibilities direct study of community has to offer:

> . . . in the Lefferts Park Elementary School in Brooklyn, a construction worker discovered in the basement a brick arched doorway that led to a previously concealed storage room. This discovery captured the children's imagination. They began to explore the construction of the school, when it was built, and who the workers were who built the structure. Children talked with people in the community and learned about the craftsmanship of the Italian immigrant bricklayers who had worked on this construction. They discovered that some of their own relatives had helped to construct their school. As the children brought this information back to the classroom, they made drawings of the workers and collected photos of the community and school. The project culminated in a week-long festival where people came in from the community to demonstrate Italian-American crafts to the children. They made spaghetti, wood carving, embroidery, and leather work. Children joined in to make their own crafts for display. Through these experiences, the whole community benefited. Foreign-born parents no longer felt alienated from the school, and both parents and

children gained in self-image and a sense of belonging. There's no graffiti or vandalism in this school.

Of course, study of the community should not be conceived narrowly, for the modern community is part of a global system. The study of local businesses might include investigation of the sources of businesses' inventories, which might lead to study of places on the globe, of international trade, of U.S. import policies, of U.S. dependence on raw materials from other lands, and of working conditions, life styles, and economic systems in other nations.

History is a discipline that has one foot in the humanities with its concern for the human condition and for dramatic storytelling and one foot in the social sciences with its concern for accuracy and valid interpretations. Consequently, many ideas in the discussions of the social sciences, philosophy, and the arts on pages 15-18 below apply to history.

3. History

In an address to the American Historical Association in 1926, the historian Carl Becker stated that everyone knows some history, if history is considered to be an extension of the memory. He added "that the kind of history that has most influence upon the life of the community and the course of events is the history that common men carry in their heads. . . . [and that] the proper function of erudite historical research is to be forever correcting the common image of the past by bringing it to the test of reliable information."

The study of history is important in social studies to help students begin to answer such important questions as these: (a) What was human living like in the past? (b) How did modern institutions and current conditions develop? (c) What interrelationships exist among past, present, and future events? (d) How do historians make their histories? How do we evaluate those histories? (e) What are the roots and values of this nation? (f) What is the human legacy from the past—both the magnificent accomplishments and the human failures? (g) What is man? What is civilization? What is society? What is the place of individual men, women, and children in the community, in the nation, in other nations, and on this planet?

"Each of the social sciences and the humanities selects one major facet from a culture as a whole and then studies it in detail . . . only history tries conscientiously to fit all the parts into a meaningful whole."
Edwin O. Reischauer

4. The Social Sciences

A fourth base of knowledge for social studies instruction is the social sciences. The main goal of the social sciences is to explain complex human activity, with each social science discipline having a particular focus:

Social Science Discipline	Its Focus
Anthropology	Study of human cultures, their origins and their dynamics.
Economics	Study of how societies and individuals allocate productive resources to meet people's wants and needs.
Geography	Study of spatial relationships.
History*	Study/story/interpretation of the human past.
Political Science	Study of political power and influence, of political behavior, of political conflict and its control, of government and rule making.
Psychology/Social Psychology	Study of human behavior—motivation, personality, learning, cognitive and moral development, group dynamics, relating to self and others.
Sociology	Study of society, of groups, how they are formed, how they change, how they affect and are affected by individuals.

*There is debate even among historians concerning the extent to which history may be considered a social science.

How do social sciences relate to social studies? Some social studies educators regard social studies as "social sciences simplified for instruction in elementary and secondary schools." Social studies, we noted, has purposes related to citizenship education. The main purpose of the social sciences, on the other hand, is to produce and refine knowledge about social phenomena. To make decisions, citizens need insights from the social sciences, as well as understanding of the ways in which social scientists develop and verify knowledge; yet citizen decision making and social studies involve more, as our discussion of philosophy below will make clear.

"The scientist may choose the concerns to be dealt with to fit his or her best circumstances; the citizen must meet problems under circumstances frequently not of his or her choosing. The scientist may refrain from reaching conclusions until there is sufficient data; the citizen must often decide even when the data is conflicting and inconclusive. The citizen must decide and take action even while doubting the decision. The citizen must operate with ongoing tentativeness as opposed to the scientist's sporadic questioning of conclusions in the light of new data."
Wilma Longstreet (1979)

What may the social sciences contribute to social studies?

a. *Concepts*
In order to study social phenomena, social scientists have had to develop a vocabulary to describe and discuss those phenomena. Many of these terms, such as "positive reinforcement," "political influence," "law," "consumer," "culture," "norm," "social role," "due process," "democracy," and "system," are useful for everyone to understand and apply in their everyday roles. Concepts are absolutely necessary tools for human thinking, necessary for children as well as adults. Concepts from the social sciences are needed by everyone who wants to understand, discuss, and make decisions related to social phenomena. Terms are labels for concepts. Being certain that people are clear about the concepts behind the terms they use and that they agree on the concepts referred to by these terms is a major aspect of citizen decision making.

b. *Knowledge*
Social scientists have established knowledge in the form of facts, generalizations, and theories that are useful in explaining, predicting, and sometimes controlling events. For example, economists have developed theories to explain fluctuations in prices. Those theories may also be used to suggest or evaluate policies that have an impact upon price levels. Knowledge from social sciences, like that from all sciences, is subject to scrutiny of others and is modified in the light of new evidence or of new theory, which offers more satisfactory explanations of events.

c. *Methods of Research*
Social scientists have developed useful methods for observing and reaching conclusions and for evaluating the accuracy of beliefs about social events. The ability to draw valid conclusions from observations and to identify patterns is necessary for a person to deal realistically with the world. In addition, the ability to make sound decisions about the probable truth of specific claims is an important skill needed by all citizens, whether they are making decisions as consumers, jurors, decision makers in organizations, or voters.

5. Philosophy

Social studies not only draws upon the above four sources, it also draws upon the humanities, which include philosophy and the arts. A philosophic perspective is extremely important in decision making. The philosophic perspective is concerned with:

a. *Truth*, with identifying what kinds of claims are made and with determining what kinds of evidence are needed to prove the claims.
b. *Values*, with determining what ends are good or bad to pursue, what means are right or wrong to use.
c. *Logic*, with applying rationality to thinking.

A philosophic perspective leads a person to identify the assumptions that rest behind positions people take, to question the validity of those as-

sumptions, to question the logical relationship between assumptions and conclusions drawn from them, and to consider the ethics of one's own behavior and that of others. Such a perspective is important for a free-thinking, democratic people to have.

6. The Arts

The term "the arts" is used in this guide in a broad sense, to refer to all creative human productions. The arts* may be used to help students understand and empathize with other people—their hopes, their predicaments, their struggles, their accomplishments, and their failures. They may help students go beyond stereotypic views of other people by helping them get to know vicariously men, women, and children they could never expect to meet in their lives—slaves on southern plantations and their owners; whites and blacks in South Africa; Japanese-Americans interned during World War II; soldiers of the Crusades, of World Wars I and II, and of Vietnam; pioneers, cowboys, and Indians in the American West; Jewish, Italian, Irish, and Norwegian immigrants to the United States; religious leaders; politicians; and many others from all over this country and world, from ancient times into the future. The arts help provide a broader view on current problems and help a person relate present conditions to those of other times and places in ways that are often concrete, dramatic, and intriguing. The arts, often overlooked in social studies, may be used to stimulate interest in the human condition.

Useful, inexpensive references for the teacher on this topic include Cianciolo (1977), Donelson (1976), and White (1979).

7. The Communications Media (Press, Radio, and Television)

The modern citizen depends upon the communications media to keep informed about events of the community, nation, and world. Resourceful social studies teachers also use the media—often in creative ways—as tools in their instructional programs to accomplish their objectives (in global studies, history, government, ethnic studies, law-related education, economics, etc.). An important task for schools is to help students understand how reporters and editors decide what news to report and how they report it. The communications network is more than a reporter of news; it is itself a potent factor in influencing future events and everyday behavior. It may even present misinformation and stereotypes. According to Frank Mankiewicz and Joel Swerdlow (1978, pp. 363-64):

> Television programs increasingly—at an alarming rate of increase—now provide the background, rhythms, and assumptions by which Americans live. In doing so, they enter our lives in ways so deep as often to be unrecognizable, and often impossible to escape. The policeman pulling up to the scene of an accident or a crime, the lawyer preparing to address the jury or examine a witness, the doctor talking to a patient or scrubbing up for surgery—each cannot help but register images of what the scenes are like on television. He knows, in short, full well what his feelings and actions "should" be. Even if he does not consciously make this calculation ("Now, ladies and gentlemen, this is not a *Perry Mason* program. . ."), then he does so subconsciously. From the television image—and the difference between it and reality—comes much of his attitude and behavior.

Several newspapers in Missouri have excellent Newspapers in Education programs.

Conclusions

In this chapter a definition of social studies was listed, as well as basic sources of information upon which social studies teachers may draw. The definition of social studies provides a clear direction for social studies teachers—to develop knowledge, skills, and attitudes related to citizenship

*Useful, inexpensive references for the teacher on this topic include Cianciolo (1977), Donelson (1976), and White (1979).

education. The basic sources of information, being so varied and not always accurate, indicate the importance of social studies teachers striving at all times to broaden and deepen their educational backgrounds. Social studies is a subject area rich in content. A major problem is that the richness of content makes the task of creating a cohesive social studies program an extremely complex task (more about that in Chapter VI). As social studies teachers expand their own educational horizons by observation, by reading, and by thinking, they become better able to help students learn to appreciate what social studies has to offer.

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Chapter III
Developing Social Studies Curriculum at the Local Level

From the student's perspective—the most important perspective in education—the curricular decisions of the classroom teacher are the curricular decisions that are of most importance. Much money has been spent developing experimental curricula and text materials; yet individual classroom teachers will have the most influence on what effect those materials will have in the classroom.

No teacher can avoid being a curriculum developer. Decisions about what to teach and emphasize, how to teach specific content, and how to evaluate student performance—everyday decisions for teachers—are basically curriculum development decisions. Those decisions are usually made by teachers individually, often with excellent results; yet the quality of those decisions is likely to be enhanced if teachers, with sufficient time, have the opportunity to share ideas and clarify their thinking. One way to encourage the sharing of important social studies ideas is to involve teachers (and others) in developing local curriculum guides. This chapter offers suggestions for developing local curriculum guides that will help stimulate professional growth.

Schools should, of course, avoid reinventing the wheel. Two organizations have developed helpful, relatively inexpensive materials to use in developing social studies curricula: the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) and the Social Science Education Consortium (SSEC). NCSS produces the *Social Studies Curriculum Guidelines* (1979), *Curriculum Guidelines for Multiethnic Education* (1976), *International Learning and Education in a Global Age* (1975), and other useful booklets for curriculum development in social studies. SSEC produces *Planning a Social Studies Program: Activities, Guidelines, and Resources; A Handbook for Department Leadership in the Social Studies;* and other publications.

The NCSS and SSEC addresses may be found in the appendix to this guide (see p. 181).

So useful are the NCSS and SSEC documents that we advise people developing their own social studies curricula to examine and consider using such documents. In the remaining space of this chapter we will address these questions:

1. Why develop curriculum guides in local school districts?
2. What might a local district's curriculum guide include?
3. Who should be involved in developing the guide?

Why develop curriculum guides in local school districts?

Often, teachers develop curriculum guides because a school administrator or the State Department of Education says a guide is needed. Sometimes, guides are developed to impress a visiting North Central evaluation team. If such reasons are the only reasons for developing guides, teachers will not approach the task with enthusiasm and imagination, and the guides that are developed will probably be used mainly to fill empty file space. To avoid that, other reasons are needed for developing guides, such as:

Curriculum development is not a simple, routine task. It should not be viewed as a burden that has to be done, but as an opportunity to expand viewpoints, to put more order in the program for students, and to deal rationally with common problems.

1. To clarify for staff and community the mission of social studies in the district's total curriculum.
2. To specify how the K-12 social studies curriculum is to be organized in an effort to avoid gaps of important content or undesirable repetition.
3. To maintain reasonable consistency in what is taught within the social studies curriculum.
4. To help teachers understand what is expected of them.
5. To collect and share the thinking of the entire faculty about teaching methods and strategies.
6. To identify local, state, and national resources that the faculty may use to accomplish goals of the instructional program.
7. To identify what objectives students should master at various levels in the program.
8. To establish a base from which local educators, individually and in groups, can plan for instruction.
9. To provide a system for assuring that *every* student demonstrates mastery of certain *basic* social studies objectives.

☑ **Idea for staff development:** *The committee could examine the reasons listed on this page, identify other reasons, and determine which reasons are of most importance to the local district.*

A guide that fulfills functions like those above would be useful when selecting instructional materials and when deciding which teachers ought to teach the various courses in the curriculum.

Local faculties or curriculum committees are advised to examine the above purposes, revise them, and make them more functional for the local district. An effort to develop a curriculum guide is bound to be more productive when the purposes of the guide are specified and understood by the people who will draft it.

What might a local district's curriculum guide include?

☑ **Idea for staff development:** *A local faculty should carry out the strategy suggested in this paragraph before it develops a curriculum guide.*

Local faculties or curriculum committees should examine the suggestions for content listed below, consider what additional areas might be included, and then decide which parts *they* want to include in their districts' guides. Because of time constraints and a desire to avoid being too prescriptive, most districts will choose *not* to include all items that follow:

1. The current philosophies of the (a) school district and (b) school building.
2. A statement of rationale for the social studies program. The rationale would consist of the district's main general goals for social studies and its reasons for emphasizing those goals. The number of goals in the rationale should be small. The goals and reasons should relate logically to the district's philosophy, the purposes of education in our type of society, and the place of social studies in that education. Placing such assumptions on paper and revising the assumptions is one good way a staff could make certain it is teaching toward important goals for young Americans (See Shaver and Strong, 1976, and Newmann, 1977). *Chapter IV includes ideas related to this point.*
3. A description of the scope—the most important objectives—of the total K-12 social studies program. *Chapter V has a set of objectives related to this point.*
4. A description of the sequence of content from kindergarten through grade 12. For each grade level specify: (a) the main topics or themes to be dealt with and (b) the critical objectives. Chapters V and VI may be used as resources.
5. A description of how each social studies grade or course is to be organized, which may include any or all of the following:
   a. A list of the units
   b. Goals and objectives
   c. Content outline

A rationale might be written and used effectively if it is in a format like the following:

Basic Assumptions	Goals, Objectives or Practices Based on the Assumptions
1.	1.
2.	2.

d. Sample lessons emphasizing a variety of teaching strategies
e. Sample student assignments
f. A list of learning resources (readings, films, filmstrips, simulations, museums, field experience sites) available in the district.

6. A description of how the program is to be evaluated, which is discussed in Chapter IX and which may include the following:
   a. Statements on the purposes of evaluation. (To help assure that each student learns at least certain minimum knowledge and skills? To help make judgments about which facets of the program are given sufficient emphasis? To help teachers get feedback on their teaching?)
   b. Strategies and instruments for evaluation for various purposes and levels.
   c. Specification of who is responsible for evaluation at the different levels. If those people are not teachers, how should teachers relate to evaluators?
7. A description of how the curriculum is to be modified in the local district, which may include:
   a. Roles of teachers, administrators, school board, parents, and students in various aspects of the curriculum change process (see the next section of this chapter).
   b. Schedule and procedures for revising the social studies rationale and the scope and sequence.
   c. Schedule and procedures for adding, deleting, and revising courses.
   d. Schedule and procedures for selecting textbooks and other resource materials.

A curriculum guide could include any or all of the above items or others depending upon what purposes were specified for the guide.

An important suggestion: the guide should never be considered a finished product. It may be developed in one year, implemented in the next year, and revised in subsequent years. It is often helpful to use a loose-leaf format so that sections can be added and changes made. Also individual teachers may want to add pages of their own for their personal use. *An example of a set of procedures one small, rural Missouri school district has used to revise its curriculum may be found on page 22.*

The size of the guide will depend upon the guide's purposes and what sections are included. The length of a guide is no assurance that it is good; a better test of the guide's value is whether it is used frequently.

Should the district or individual teachers develop content outlines: According to Roland Barth (1980), "I [as principal] ask teachers to prepare their own curriculum outlines . . . . I have found that when teachers prepare their own curricular outlines crucial issues come to the surface, promoting examination of what teachers believe about themselves, about children, and about teaching. The teacher who deliberately decides what to do in the classroom . . . is more likely to evolve a successful, consistent curriculum than the teacher who is given a canned package . . . . In spite of our untidy methods, the roof has not collapsed . . . . I have found problems of diversity in curriculum more exciting and productive than problems of uniformity."

Who should be involved in developing a social studies guide?

Many people may be involved in the various aspects of developing a social studies guide, including teachers, administrators, the school board, adults from the community, and students. *Which people should be involved in the various tasks would and should vary according to the specific task and the community.* Decisions concerning whom to involve are important, since morale of the staff, quality and impact of the product, and community support all are affected by those who participate.

The following are some pitfalls to avoid:

1. Failure to involve teachers in the entire process of developing the guide. (Quality of product could be endangered, morale problems could result, and efforts to implement the guide may fail.)
2. Failure to involve teachers who teach different age levels. (Program continuity is likely to suffer.)
3. Failure to seek parent input on overall goals of program. (Community support problems could follow and quality of product may suffer. See

Teachers are key people in the process since they work directly with the students. Indeed, they often gain more in new insights and sense of direction from the process of developing the guide than they will from reading the product.

A Systematic Approach to Curriculum Study and Revision*

This approach is based on the following assumptions:

A. The ideal situation would be to have an individual curriculum for each child, and the next best thing would be to have a curriculum to fit each individual grade or class in a particular school system.
B. Most unclassified and AA school districts and some AAA districts do not have the time, the appropriate personnel, or the financial resources to prepare the individual curriculum and curriculum materials.
C. The next best solution is to use the commercially prepared materials that are based on some of the best research and thinking in the field, and to adapt these to the local district's needs.

With the above three assumptions, the following is a systematic approach to curriculum study and revision.

I. **Plan** a time sequence so all areas of curriculum are scheduled for revision every four or five years.
Our schedule is as follows:

1980-81 — Science	1984-85 — Reading and P.E.
1982-83 — Social Studies	1985-86 — English and Vocational
1983-84 — Mathematics and Fine Arts	(then repeat)

II. **Search** the field for new ideas, new programs, and new materials by reading, visiting good programs, attending meetings, and using the advice of authorities in the field. Also survey the opinions of former students in the program. Complete by October 15.
III. **Decide** what objectives and content should be included in the local program K-12, or what changes need to be made from the present program, based on the search and survey made in Item II. Complete by November 1.
IV. **Gather for Examination** all available commercial material, such as texts, that might be used for all classes K-12 to adequately implement the program decided upon. Complete by January 1.
V. **Choose** the two or three sets of commercial materials examined in Item IV that most nearly fit the program objectives and content decided upon. Complete by February 1.
VI. **Evaluate and Rate** the two or three sets of commercial material in terms of how well the material fits the program agreed upon for each grade level. Teachers from all grade levels should be involved in this. Complete by February 15.
VII. **Select** the commercial materials that best implement the program on the basis of the teachers' evaluations and ratings. Complete by March 1.
VIII. **Revise** commercial materials in respect to content and sequence of content to more nearly fit the K-12 program decided upon in Item III. Complete by March 15.
IX. **Adopt** evaluation instruments and procedures that will determine whether the course objectives are being met at each level. Complete by April 15.
X. **Complete** for each course or grade, in writing, (by May 1) a summary that includes:
A. Course outline with objectives in sequence along with a suggested time schedule for the sequence.
B. Title, author, company, and copyright date of all material to be used in the course.
C. Copy of evaluation devices to be used along with instructions for their use.
XI. **Reevaluate** the program *at the end of the next year* to eliminate any problems that were not anticipated.

*This approach to curriculum revision is used by and reproduced here with the permission of St. Elizabeth School District, Ray Doerhoff, Superintendent. Chapters in this guide may be used in Steps II through X for social studies revisions. See especially Chapters V, VI, VIII, and IX.

Chapter VIII, page 149, for a discussion of parent involvement.)

4. Failure to involve school administrators in the entire process of developing the guide. (Their support in implementing the guide and in obtaining community and school board support is essential.)
5. Failure to seek and take seriously student reactions to the social studies curriculum. (Quality of product could suffer, and the program would be unlikely to accomplish its objectives.)
6. Failure to seek assistance of people from universities, other school districts, and the State Department of Elementary and Secondary Education when those people have social studies expertise. (Quality of product may not reach its potential.)

Districts should give careful consideration to involving the right people *at the right time*. The "Curriculum Development Planning Sheet" which appears on page 25 may be used to help plan steps to be taken in the curriculum development process, to determine which people should be involved and what their roles will be, and to determine deadlines for tasks. On page 26 is a list of tasks that may be used by local districts in curriculum development. This list should be modified by local educators and may be incorporated in the curriculum development planning sheets as shown in the hypothetical example on page 27.

Conclusion: "Symptoms of Success"

How does a district know if its curriculum development efforts are succeeding? Raymond H. Meussig (1978, p. 15) offers the following "infallible symptoms of success:"

1. When the educational experiences of children and youth have been enriched because their teachers engaged in curriculum work.
2. When all of the curriculum workers have grown personally and professionally as a result of their participation.
3. When teachers are involved in curriculum improvement because they want to be.
4. When teachers who did not want to participate initially in a curriculum project decide that something worthwhile is taking place and that they should become involved.
5. When curriculum improvement becomes a continuous process, rather than an occasional, short-lived effort.
6. When teachers, wishing continuous social studies curriculum reform, persist in requesting funds for outside consultants, expenses to attend conferences, university graduate study, released time during the school year, summer employment, professional publications, instructional materials, etc.
7. When teachers know better than ever before *why* they are doing *what* they are doing in the classroom.
8. When teachers spark each other informally by trading their best ideas in personal discussion, by observing and critiquing each other in their respective classrooms, by exchanging materials and written suggestions all over the school district, etc.
9. When district-developed social studies curriculum guides and resource units are seen on top of teachers' desks and are really used frequently, instead of being filed.
10. When channels of communication are opened and strengthened throughout the district, and students, parents, teachers, principals, supervisors, curriculum directors, chief administrators, school board members, and the general public all talk and listen more to each other and like better what they say and hear.

Such "symptoms of success" require more than the production of quality local curriculum guides. They also require carefully planned efforts to orient teachers to the guides and to involve staff in the process of curriculum improvement through inservice programs.

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Curriculum Development Planning Sheet

Directions: Reproduce this sheet and write in names of people to be involved in the specific tasks. Indicate how the individuals are to be involved (D=draft document; RE=react to draft; RV=revise draft; A=approve product). Place an asterisk beside the name of the person responsible for the implementation of the task.

Tasks	Who Should Be Involved?				
	Board of Education	Administrators, Consultants, Supervisors	Teachers	Community People	Students
1. Draft deadline _____ 2. Reaction deadline ____ 3. Revision deadline _____ 4. Approval deadline ____					
1. Draft deadline _____ 2. Reaction deadline ____ 3. Revision deadline _____ 4. Approval deadline ____					
1. Draft deadline _____ 2. Reaction deadline ____ 3. Revision deadline _____ 4. Approval deadline ____					
1. Draft deadline _____ 2. Reaction deadline ____ 3. Revision deadline _____ 4. Approval deadline ____					
1. Draft deadline _____ 2. Reaction deadline ____ 3. Revision deadline _____ 4. Approval deadline ____					

Tasks in Curriculum Development

(Planning Tasks)

1. Determine functions of the local social studies guide (see pp. 19-20).
2. Determine what resources (time, money, materials) are needed to develop and implement the local social studies guide.
3. Determine tasks and deadlines needed to complete the local social studies guide.
4. Determine how the local guide will be implemented.
5. Determine when and by what procedures the guide will be revised in subsequent years.

(Substantive Tasks)

6. Examine (and revise if necessary) statements of philosophy of the district and building.
7. Formulate rationale statement for social studies (see Chapter IV of this guide).
8. Determine the main objectives of the total social studies program (see Chapter V of this guide).
9. Make certain that the rationale (Step 7 above) and objectives (Step 8 above) are consistent.
10. Formulate K-12 social studies course sequence (see Chapter VI of this guide).
11. Select instructional materials. (Be sure to allow sufficient time to make rational choices. See Chapter VIII of this guide.)
12. Identify objectives to be emphasized in individual courses. [This involves relating courses (Step 10 above) and materials (Step 11 above) to objectives (Steps 8 and 9 above).]
13. Make certain that rationale, objectives, course sequence, and materials are consistent and mutually supportive.
14. Develop and carry out strategies to implement the curriculum guide.
15. Develop, implement, and use evaluation strategies to improve the curriculum.

Curriculum Development Planning Sheet

Directions: Reproduce this sheet and write in names of people to be involved in the specific tasks. Indicate how the individuals are to be involved (D=draft document; RE=react to draft; RV=revise draft; A=approve product). Place an asterisk beside the name of the person responsible for the implementation of the task.

Tasks	Who Should Be Involved?				
	Board of Education	Administrators, Consultants, Supervisors	Teachers	Community People	Students
6. Examine and revise philosophy of education of district 1. Draft deadline -- 2. Reaction deadline 9/15 3. Revision deadline 9/22 4. Approval deadline 10/3	Entire Board (RE,A)	Superintendent (RE, A) Asst.Supt and Principals (RE)	All teachers (RE) District Curriculum Steering Committee (RV)	J. Smith (RE) Kelly (RE) Davis (RE) Finch (RE) Cohen (RE)	Stone (RE) Wilson (RE) Cobb RE) Nelson (RE)
7. Examine and revise philosophies of education of buildings 1. Draft deadline 10/20 2. Reaction deadline 11/3 3. Revision deadline 11/10 4. Approval deadline 11/17		Principals (A)*	•Building Teachers (RE) •Building Curriculum Comm. (D,RV)	Principals select parents (RE)	Principals select students in secondary buildings RE
8. Formulate rationale for social studies 1. Draft deadline 12/15 2. Reaction deadline 1/25 3. Revision deadline 2/29 4. Approval deadline 3/11	Entire Board (RE,A)	Supt. (RE,A) Asst. Supt. (RE) Principals (RE)	Kelsey*-Sec. Soc. studies tchrs. (RE), Elem. tchrs. (RE)-Dist.So. St.Com.(D,RV)	J. Smith (RE) Kelly (RE) Davis (RE) Finch (RE) Cohen (RE)	Stone (RE) Wilson (RE) Cobb (RE) Nelson (RE)
9. Determine main objectives of total social studies program 1. Draft deadline 4/4 2. Reaction deadline 4/18 3. Revision deadline 5/1 4. Approval deadline 5/12	Entire Board (RE,A)	Supt. (RE,A) Asst. Supt. (RE) Principals (RE)	Kelsey*-Sec. Soc. studies tchrs.(RE), Elem. tchrs. (RE)-Dist.So. St.Com.(D,RV)	J. Smith (RE) Kelly (RE) Davis (RE) Finch (RE) Cohen (RE)	Stone (RE) Wilson (RE) Cobb (RE) Nelson (RE)
10. Make certain rationale and objectives are consistant and mutually supportive -- -- 1. Draft deadline ____ 2. Reaction deadline ___ 3. Revision deadline 5/23 4. Approval deadline 5/30		Asst. Supt. (A)	•John Kelsey* •District social studies Committee (RV)		

Chapter IV
Values, Controversy, and Social Studies:

Basic Assumptions to Consider when Developing Rationales for Social Studies Programs

[A] knowledge base. . .must underlie decisions, but in the decision making process it is equally essential that the focus be directed to values, ideas, issues and concerns which have realistic meaning to young people as they seek to acquire insights into responsibilities of decision making and the responsibilities of citizenship. In this approach controversial matters will be encountered. They should not be evaded nor hidden. However, the selection of such issues which are appropriate to be dealt with in particular situations with particular age groups, and the ways they are woven into teaching and learning procedures are matters of judgment for teachers and school administrators to deal with in local situations.

Loran G. Townsend
Dean of Education, Emeritus
University of Missouri-Columbia
August, 1979

This chapter was written to help local educators clarify their rationales for teaching social studies. Through the processes of reading and reacting to ideas of this chapter (perhaps in the margins), readers should understand better their own assumptions and beliefs about the purposes of social studies.

Social studies: concerned with human values and controversy

Consider the types of topics dealt with in social studies: economics, politics, ethnic studies, law, community, and international relations, to name a few general categories. Many of those topics, *especially when we take specific cases,* involve human values and are controversial. That is, they are subject to dispute, where intelligent adults take different points of view, sometimes with heated emotion. Some elementary teachers and secondary social studies teachers may want to keep values and controversy out of their classrooms, as in the following four situations:

- Ms. Neutral, a junior high social studies teacher, believes she should keep values out of her teaching; yet in a unit on the growth of U.S. industry Ms. Neutral emphasized the importance of business being permitted to operate with no government interference.
- Ms. Freethought, a fifth grade teacher, believes she has no right to indoctrinate students with her own values. One day, a student told her, "It's all right to 'rip off' big companies." Ms. Freethought said nothing. She disagreed with the student but did not say so, since she felt she had no right to impose her views on the student.

☑ **Idea for staff development:** *This chapter could be reproduced and given to staff. Pages 31-36 could be examined by local educators. They could offer suggestions for improving it and for considering its implications.*

- Mr. Fact, a senior high teacher who likes to keep discussions in his class unemoticnal and rational, keeps his students busy learning facts about the past. His students studied and were tested on at least ten presidential elections from U.S. history. During the last presidential election year, however, no class time was spent discussing the current election.
- Mr. Read, a second grade teacher, takes pride in how well he teaches students to read. One day, while teaching short "a" sounds to his first reading group, two students in a different reading group got into an argument over who was the real owner of a St. Louis Cardinal pencil. The argument escalated rapidly into a fight. Mr. Read stood as tall as he could, looked at the two boys, walked over to them, took the pencil, broke it in half, tossed it in the waste basket, and said "I'm trying to teach people how to read. Learning to read is much more important than a wood pencil. Now, you boys put your heads down and keep them down until I tell you to lift them up."

Ms. Neutral, Ms. Freethought, Mr. Fact, and Mr. Read may not have been consciously aware of the fact that they were dealing with values and controversial issues in their classrooms; yet each was doing so. Ms. Neutral was teaching her own point of view as if it were truth; Ms. Freethought might have appeared to be condoning stealing; Mr. Fact may have implied that knowledge of the past is more important than issues of today; and Mr. Read was conveying the message that order in the classroom is more important than solving a student dispute fairly.

It is easier, with hindsight, of course, to think of alternatives than to make wise decisions on the spot.

Obviously, each teacher could have handled the situations portrayed differently. Ms. Neutral could have helped her students to investigate the question of whether business should be subject to regulation. Ms. Freethought could use a Socratic approach with the student who feels it is okay to "rip off" big companies by asking, "What would happen if everyone would actually steal from big companies?" Mr. Fact could have his students compare the issues of the current election with those of past elections. He might even allocate time for students to simulate the current election campaign in his classroom. Mr. Read could have taken the pencil for the time being, given each child a pencil to use, and told the boys he would help them solve their problem during recess. Of course, there are other possibilities in each case.

The main point is that teachers, especially social studies teachers, cannot avoid dealing with values in their classes. *In fact, social studies teachers cannot teach their subject accurately without dealing with values and controversy.*

Students cannot gain accurate knowledge about the species Homo sapiens without studying about people having values that influence their behavior, sometimes leading to conflict among people. Often, those disputes are sublimated or handled peacefully and with wisdom, but sometimes, they are handled violently, irrationally, even with cruelty. Teachers may skirt the study of controversial actions of individuals and groups by studying events at a high level of generality, as some bland textbooks do; yet in doing so, they are not helping students understand the realities of the present and past.

According to Glenn Pate of the University of Arizona, in a study of 47 high school history textbooks an average of five sentences were devoted to the Nazi Holocaust in World War II, and none described the anti-Nazi Resistance.
Education Daily, October 16, 1979

Since social studies teachers cannot and should not avoid dealing with values in their teaching, the question they must answer is how—not whether—to deal with values responsibly in teaching social studies. To deal with values responsibly, we maintain, it is necessary that the approach used:

- be based on clear definitions of values,
- be related to valid interpretations of American society and its ideals, and
- be consistent with and directly related to a concept of "the good citizen," which would be appropriate for public schools to promote.

The outline of assumptions, which begins on this page, represents a position social studies teachers may take related to the three preceding points (how values are defined, the nature of American society, and the nature of "the good citizen"). A fourth and final part of the outline is a position concerning the responsibilities of social studies teachers related to values. That final part of the outline is based on the preceding three sections. The outline may be examined to help clarify one's own position. For a more thoughtful and in-depth discussion, see James P. Shaver and William Strong's readable book *Facing Value Decisions: Rationale Building for Teachers* (1976). Many of the ideas that follow were influenced by that book.

An outline of basic assumptions about values and social studies

Assumptions about values

1. *Values are standards for judging worth.* We have feelings about our values (e.g., we want honesty and beauty); yet values are more than feelings. They are also concepts, which may be defined, compared, contrasted, and related to other concepts. (Examples of values are listed on page 32).
2. *Value judgments are assertions based upon values.* For example, a teacher's statement, "Keep quiet unless I call on you to speak," is a value judgment. It may be based on such values as desire for order, desire to protect one's job, or desire to give everyone, even quiet students, a chance to participate in discussions. "A Cadillac is a fine car" is also a value judgment. Upon what values might that value judgment be based?
3. *Attitudes are related to values, but they are not the same thing.* Attitudes refer to people's organization of beliefs and feelings directed to specific objects. For example, we have attitudes relating to the current President, to the Supreme Court, to politicians, to books, to rock music, and to particular ethnic groups. One person's attitudes may be very different from those of another person. Moreover, some people reflect on their attitudes more than others. Attitudes are based upon factual beliefs, emotional experiences, and values.
4. *There are different kinds of values,* as noted on page 32.
5. *Different values may lead to conflict in specific situations.* For example:
   - A man goes to war. He does not want to kill anyone or be killed (value of life); yet he wants to help defend his country (patriotism).
   - A teacher gives a student a low grade on a test. She is worried about the effect of the grade upon the student's self-concept; yet she also feels teachers must follow the grading criteria they announce to their students.
   - One person wants to tear down an area of housing where poor people live to help beautify downtown (aesthetic value or the instrumental value of helping tourism). Another person opposes the project because it will destroy a neighborhood (the moral value of social concern).
6. *Value conflicts occur within the minds of individuals,* as in the first two examples under 5 above, where individuals may feel they are caught on the horns of a dilemma. *Value conflicts also occur between people,* as in the last assumption under 5.

Kinds of Values and Examples of Each

Kinds of Values *(Explanation)*	**Examples**
Aesthetic Values *(Standards by which people judge beauty, or an application of taste.)*	• Ted values rhythm in music. • Ancient Greeks valued symmetry in their paintings.
Instrumental Values *(Standards valued because they support or help achieve other values.)*	• A school principal values punctuality at school (to accomplish the more fundamental value of of education.) • An English teacher values correctness in writing (to accomplish the more fundamental value of clear communication.)
Moral Values *(Standards by which aims or actions are judged. Examples of moral values are cleanliness, honesty, patriotism, equality, freedom, justice, and human dignity. People vary in their emotional attachment to different values and vary as to which values they hold up as standards for themselves or for others.)*	*Examples of moral values a person applies as standards only for himself or herself:* • Roger values cleanliness and orderliness. He keeps his own office neat at all times. He does not, however, mind if other people allow their offices to be messy. • Sarah, an Orthodox Jew, feels a duty to obey all Jewish dietary rules. She does not, however, expect others to do so. *Examples of moral values a person applies as standards only for certain groups:* • Mr. and Mrs. Q. expect *their* children to help with family chores. • Ron expects everyone *in his band* to be punctual. *Examples of moral values a person applies as standards for everyone:* • Judy expects *everyone* to obey the law. • Paul expects *everyone* to be openminded and humane to fellow human beings.

Assumptions about American society

1. *The society is pluralistic.* United States citizens include refugees and their children, seekers of freedom and opportunity and their children, and children of people brought to this land against their will as slaves. There is no such person as "the average American." Americans include people of all races, people with different cultural roots, and people with a variety of religious beliefs. Such diversity could make it difficult for the society to survive (civil strife among groups has occurred in many places); yet that diversity, when accompanied by a commitment to values like those in Assumptions 3 and 4 below, serves to enrich the society and help buttress human freedom.
2. *The system of governance is that of a democratic republic.* In a "republic" citizens select representatives who govern. The representatives are subject to periodic review. In a "democracy" there are mechanisms to balance majority rule with protection of minority rights.
3. *The society should be judged by the extent to which it supports the basic value of human dignity.* "Human dignity" refers to the idea that every person has intrinsic or potential worth simply because he or she is human.
4. *Other American political values are instrumental in relation to human dignity.* These values include, but are not limited to: *liberty;*

To say that these values are part of America's heritage is not to say Americans have always acted in ways consistent with these values. There is often a tension between ideals and reality. Moreover, those values undergo redefinition over time as the nation's experiences change.

Benjamin Franklin appealed to the common interests of the thirteen colonies during the Revolutionary War. Our society is still held together by common interests.

justice; equality; property rights; general welfare; domestic tranquility; freedom of speech, press, and religion; right to assemble and petition for redress of grievances; due process of law; and majority rule. Those values are found in such documents as the Declaration of Independence and federal and state constitutions, as well as in political speeches and court decisions.

5. *Human dignity implies the right to choose,* which in turn, implies the need to use one's mind and results in diversity of thinking.
6. *Disputes among people are a natural consequence of diversity of thinking, which is a result of people having different experiences and frames of reference.* Examples of such disputes may be found in daily newspapers—disputes about control of pollution, government regulation of the economy, equality of opportunity for minority groups, foreign policy, and so on.
7. *The common values of American society (see Assumptions 3 and 4 above) provide common emotional attachments which help hold society together.* Even when disputes are bitter, the opposing parties usually believe in the same values, although those values have different shades of meaning and are held with different priorities. Those common beliefs, including commitment to a peaceful consent process, help prevent conflicts from being violent, in most cases. A person like Martin Luther King was able to sway the conscience of many Americans by appealing to those common values and by demonstrating that blacks were being denied basic human dignity.
8. *American society is very complex.* With over 200 million people from different ethnic groups, with so many points of view, with big business and big government, and with many national and international problems, it is obvious that making changes within the system is not a simple matter. Citizens who favor certain changes in political and economic realms may exercise their right to vote; yet that right is only one way to have influence. One may also join organizations that support positions the individual favors. The fact that the system is not easy to change helps make life more predictable; yet the difficulty of making changes and controlling events with so many groups involved makes it inevitable that compromises will be made. Consequently,

When we let freedom ring, when we let it ring from every village and every hamlet, from every state and every city, we will be able to speed up that day when all of God's children, black men and white men, Jews and Gentiles, Protestants and Catholics, will be able to join hands and sing in the words of the old Negro spiritual, "Free at last! Free at last! Thank God Almighty, we are free at last!"

Martin Luther King, 1963

Disputes among people are a natural consequence of diversity of thinking, as was shown during the civil rights marches on the 1960's.

WE MARCH FOR JOBS NOW!
WE DEMAND VOTING RIGHTS NOW!
END SEGREGATED RULES IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS
JOBS FOR ALL NOW!
EQUAL RIGHTS NOW!

problems and injustices will persist for a longer time than some or many Americans may wish. American society is certainly not unique in these respects. Individuals must make a definite effort to have influence in this or any society.

Assumptions about citizenship in American society

If your school district has a citizenship education guide or position paper, to what extent do these ideas agree with that guide or position paper?

1. *A person may be a responsible, effective citizen without having to belong to a particular sex, age, race, or religious group.*
2. *Citizens should be committed to America's basic values.* (See "Assumptions about American Society," Assumptions 3 and 4 above.) They examine their behavior, the actions of groups to which they belong, and the actions of the state in the light of those values. *This does not mean they are in automatic agreement with other persons.* The values may be held in different priority positions. For example, one person may believe that there is a need for laws to assure tenants that their landlords will keep sidewalks and driveways clear of snow and ice in winter time, a position related to the value of social concern. Another person may oppose that position because such an ordinance would enlarge government and give it too much power, a position based on the value of liberty.
3. *Citizens should have a sense of social responsibility.* Citizens need to be aware of and concerned with what happens in the community, the groups to which they belong, the nation, and the world. They should care about what happens to people (themselves included) and should consider whether and how to act to promote positions they consider important.
4. *Citizens should use their intelligence, empathic capacity, and effort in dealing with social questions.* They should strive to be well informed, to understand the roots of current problems from various perspectives, to use knowledge of the past and of human behavior to predict consequences of selecting one alternative over another, to consider the conflicting values involved, to make decisions, and to act upon them. To act effectively is no simple matter (see "Assumptions About American Society," Assumption 8 above). It involves time, effort, cooperation with others, assertiveness, and persistence.

Assumptions about responsibilities of social studies teachers to help students become more effective citizens

1. *Social studies teachers should help students develop skills needed to make decisions rationally.* Such skills include defining issues, identifying alternatives, collecting and examining relevant information, considering probable consequences, relating consequences to social values, relating arguments to positions, evaluating arguments, and making a decision considering the preceding factors. It is possible individual students may make decisions different from those the teacher or a group within the community would make. A risk of helping people think for themselves is that they will make different decisions. Taking such a risk is necessary in a democracy where people have freedom of choice because of the democratic commitment to human dignity.
2. *Social studies teachers should emphasize knowledge important for people's roles as citizens.*
   - *Social studies teachers should help students understand how human relationships have varied from place to place and from time to time.*
   - *Social studies teachers should help students actively explore important issues of past and present, including how people have dealt with them.* Many issues are perennial. For example: What are the proper limits of government? How should church relate to state? How much freedom should people have during times of national emergency? How should the society deal with discrimination based upon race, culture, or sex? How should international disputes be resolved? Such questions have been dealt with in the past, are being dealt with today, and will be dealt with in the future. Basic human values, such as freedom, equality, justice, peace and order, and the general welfare, are very much related to those issues.
   - *Social studies teachers should help students understand struggles involved in human accomplishments, how the institutions, ideas, laws, and technology, which we now take for granted, originated and developed.*
   - *Social studies teachers should help students understand specific information relevant to a particular decision.* Such information is not often found in textbooks; hence, the need for Assumption 3, which follows:
3. *Social studies teachers should emphasize skills of conducting inquiry and of communicating.* People who have freedom of choice and freedom to influence others need the ability to read, to use a library, to learn ideas from people by talking with them, and to communicate clearly in oral and written language.
4. *Social studies teachers should be concerned that their own classrooms reflect basic values of American society.* Is the classroom permeated by such values as freedom, equal opportunity, justice, and general welfare? For example, do students have the opportunity to influence appropriately the goals of instruction? If students have grievances, are there procedures that assure them the chance to be heard without disrupting the education of others? Do students have the opportunity to conduct inquiry in the library or community? Do students have the opportunity to discuss social policy issues and to challenge each other's positions?
5. *Social studies teachers should help students learn skills of influencing policy makers.* The policy makers may be school officials, government officials of various levels, business people, or ordinary voters. Only if students get actual opportunities to try to influence policies and examine critically what they are doing and have done can schools

be certain they are helping students learn how to exercise their civic rights and responsibilities. As students strive to have influence, they learn some very important things, including: to be influential, one must be informed, vigilant, persistent, and polite; everyone cannot get what he or she wants; compromise and negotiation are part of the democratic process; and problems that may look simple at first are often really more complicated. Certainly, not every social studies class needs to involve students in trying to influence public policies; yet every student should have at least one such experience in his or her school program.

Some words of caution

Should social studies assume responsibility to help students learn to make all types of value-related decisions more effectively? *Social studies could become ineffective by trying to do too much.* It could also step into waters where the undertow pulls it into dangerous currents. Some areas of decision making fall clearly within the social studies domain; some fall clearly outside; others fall within domains shared by social studies and other curricular areas. Finally, some areas of decision making are controversial, where some social studies teachers feel the type of decision falls within the domain of social studies and other teachers take the opposite view.

Below is a set of questions local teachers and schools might use to help decide what value questions are appropriate and desirable for consideration in social studies classes:

☑ **Idea for staff development:** *Identify value questions or issues using the brainstorming process. (See page 145) Once many ideas are identified, evaluate them using these questions.*

1. Is this value question related to questions of public policy, or are answers to this value question likely to have significant consequences for oneself, for others, or for society?
2. Is this value question one that students currently recognize as important or one that students may readily be helped to recognize as important?
3. Is this value question pertinent to the content of the particular social studies course?
4. Would study of this value question help students learn important decision-making skills?
5. Is this value question one that could be discussed without invading the privacy of the students or their families?
6. Is this value question one that the courts and the local community regard as appropriate for discussion in public schools?
7. Is this a question that could be discussed in such a way to promote mutual respect and self-respect among the students of this class, regardless of their ethnic backgrounds?

Any value question for which answers to all of the above questions is "yes" would certainly be appropriate in the social studies classroom. If any of the questions are answered "no," the discussion question should be carefully considered and perhaps modified.

Conclusion

Everyone has values. Those values affect the person's behavior, which in turn affects the person's relationships with other people. Social studies teachers are no exception. Thus, the question is not whether the values of social studies teachers affect students. The question is whether social studies teachers are reflective and rational about the relationship between values and their teaching.

In this chapter ideas were presented on the nature of values, of American society, of citizenship in American society, and of the special responsibilities

of social studies teachers as teachers of American citizens. Space was set aside in the margins for teachers to write in their reactions and comments. By thinking about those ideas, teachers could clarify their own positions and rationales for how and why they will deal with values in their work with students. Teachers who have carefully thought out rationales for dealing with values in social studies have advantages over those who give little thought to this matter:

- They can more readily explain to students, parents, and administrators what they are emphasizing in their programs and why they are doing so.
- Since they can explain their purposes in teaching, they will command more respect of others than would be the case otherwise.
- Since they have explicit knowledge of their positions, they could discuss them with others, and improve them.
- Since they understand the philosophy underlying their teaching, they can select materials, design activities, and work with students in ways that are likely to accomplish purposes they believe are important. The teacher who gives little thought to relationships among personal values, societal values, and teaching is likely to be inconsistent and emphasize values in ways hard to defend (e.g. a teacher lectures to students on the merits of democracy but conducts his classroom in an authoritarian way at all times.)

For all of the above reasons the authors of this guide urge social studies educators to give much thought to the ideas of this chapter, or to read other sources on this topic, such as those cited as references below.

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Chapter V
Goals and Objectives for Social Studies

Selecting goals and objectives is an important aspect of educational program development—a prerequisite for planning lessons, for determining scopes and sequences, and for evaluating students and programs. This chapter is designed to help local educators determine what goals and instructional objectives they want to emphasize in their social studies programs.

The goals and objectives listed in this chapter are based upon ideas developed in Chapter IV, upon objectives from the National Assessment of Educational Progress, and upon objectives from Missouri's Statewide Assessment and Basic Essential Skills Test programs. We advise local educators to examine these goals and objectives and modify them for their own purposes.

Characteristics of goals and objectives in this chapter

The list of *goals* found on page 44 identifies general expectations for students. The list of *objectives*, printed on pages 45-57, expands upon the list of goals by providing sets of more specific objectives for each goal. Both lists may be removed from this guide, reproduced, and used locally by faculties and curriculum committees.

The goals and objectives are stated generally so that they might be used with a variety of students and with varied content. Examine any goal listed on page 44 and consider how it could be used with students of different ages. Could it be used in a study of the local community, of Missouri, of the United States, or of other cultures? Could it be used in the study of history, current events, or future studies? Could it be used in the study of government or economics? Similarly, examine specific objectives and consider how they could be applied to different subjects and age-level students. The objectives are stated generally so that they could be dealt with many times in a variety of ways. When different teachers teach toward the same objective using different content, students' understanding and competency related to the objective is enhanced.

The goals and objectives in this guide are not stated behaviorally. An objective is a statement of what students are supposed to learn from instruction. *Behavioral* objectives are objectives specified so clearly that one could determine whether the students have mastered them by observing their behavior or performance. An objective like "Understand the need for law" is not a behavioral objective, since understanding cannot be observed directly; yet that objective does communicate meaning to most people. We suggest that social studies programs be organized around such general objectives as those found in this chapter even if they are not behavioral, since those objectives are concise and they may be judged in terms of their value to students.

When planning for instruction and evaluating students, however, it is desirable for local educators to convert the general objectives to more specific behavioral objectives. Some teachers even involve students in the process of determining behavioral objectives. For example, a teacher indicated to her class that "Understand the need for law" is an important objective for the next unit. She then asked the class, "How will I know if you understand the need for law? I don't have a mind-reading machine. What kind of evidence would we need to prove that you understand the need for law?" Such a discussion involves students more in their own learning, helps them understand the objectives, and should help them study with more purpose.

Ways to use the objectives in this guide

How a local school district could use the objectives to determine priority objectives for the district

1. The local district should determine who to involve in this task. Teachers, other educators, parents, and students may be selected for this effort. (See Chapter III, page 23)
2. Have those individuals examine the objectives, add any other objectives they choose to add, and rank the objectives using these or similar directions:

These directions may be Xeroxed and pasted above the objectives underneath the title "Social Studies Objectives" on page 45.

> Directions: Examine the objectives below. For each objective rate as follows:
>
> 10 = Objective is essential or extremely important for our K-12 social studies program.
>
> 5 = Objective is important for our K-12 social studies program.
>
> 0 = Objective is unimportant or undesirable for our K-12 social studies program.

3. Tabulate results, determining the average response for each objective.
4. Report on results to people who filled out the instrument.
5. Use that information for discussion in deciding which objectives should be in the local district's list of objectives essential to the local program.
6. Report results to the School Board for consideration and approval
7. Use the list to help determine the K-12 course sequence, to select materials and activities, and to plan evaluation strategies.

How a local school district could use the objectives to determine priority objectives for different courses and grade levels

1. Select teachers from each grade level and course to examine the objectives, propose additional objectives, and rate the objectives according to the following directions or similar directions:

> Directions: Examine the objectives below. For each objective rate as follows:
>
> 10 = This objective is essential or extremely important for the course or grade level that I teach.
>
> 5 = This objective is important for the course or grade level that I teach.
>
> 0 = This objective is *not* important, relevant, or appropriate for the course or grade level that I teach.

2. Tabulate results for each grade level or course, determine the average (mean) for each objective.
3. Return tabulated results to each group of teachers for their consideration. Those teachers, grouped by grade levels or specific courses, should reach a consensus on what objectives are (a) important and (b) of highest priority. Each group should fill in its column of the "Summary Sheet for the Social Studies Objectives," which may be found on p. 58.
4. A committee of teachers from the group selected in Step 1 above should examine the results marked on the "Summary Sheet," note objectives deemed important that seem to be underemphasized, and recommend ways of rectifying those problems.
5. The committee should report its findings to other teachers in workshops and involve grade level or course groups in discussion of how those objectives may be taught more effectively in their classrooms.
6. Grade level or course committees may decide to work in teams to develop units and evaluation strategies related to the objectives that were identified as important and of high priority for their courses. (The list of those objectives may be kept small so that individual teachers might emphasize not only those objectives, but other ones as well.)

How individual teachers may use the objectives for planning units and courses

1. Place the following directions or similar directions under "Social Studies Objectives" on p. 45.

> Directions: Rather than invent your own objectives for units and courses you teach, use the objectives below, selecting those objectives that fit the content and your approach(es) to teaching social studies. Checkmark any objective you consider important for the course or unit you are planning, and place a plus before those objectives you consider to be of highest priority.

2. Individual teachers could scan this list of objectives and select any objectives that they feel ought to be emphasized in a unit or course they are planning.
3. Teachers should revise the wording of the objectives, where desirable, to make it pertain to the content of the specific unit and the grade level of the students for whom the unit or course is being planned.

Relationship between objectives of this chapter and those of other Department of Education programs

Relationship to Basic Essential Skills Test (BEST)

Many of the objectives on pages 45-57 are directly related to objectives of Missouri's Basic Essential Skills Test. In such cases the following abbreviations will be placed behind the specific objectives:

BEST R/LA — When the objective in this guide is related to the Reading/Language Arts portion of the BEST.
BEST M — When the objective is related to the math portion of the BEST.
BEST G/E — When the objective is related to the government/economics portion of the BEST.

The number(s) that follows the abbreviation indicates the specific objective (e.g.: BEST G/E 1 indicates Objective 1 of the government/economics portion of the BEST.)

For information about the BEST program and its objectives contact the Curriculum Services Section or the Pupil Personnel Services Section of the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (P. O. Box 480, Jefferson City, Mo. 65102), or order copies of the *Activity Books* for each of the three tests in the BEST from the Missouri Testing and Evaluation Service (University of Missouri-Columbia, 408 Hitt St., Columbia, Mo. 65211).

Relationship to Statewide Assessment Program

The BEST is a test related to the application of basic knowledge and skills in reading, language arts, math, government, and economics. The Missouri Department of Education has also developed tests for grades 6 and 12 as part of its Statewide Assessment Program. The assessment tests cover a broader range of content than the BEST, as the following goal categories from Statewide Assessment indicate:

I. Intellectual Development
- A. Communication
- B. Quantitative Thinking
- C. Social Processes
- D. Scientific Understanding
- E. Decision Making
- F. Aesthetic Sensitivity

II. Physical Development
- A. Growth and Maturation
- B. Health
- C. Recreation

III. Social Development
- A. Social and Physical Environment
- B. Cultural Awareness
- C. Governmental Institutions-Citizenship
- D. Avocational Pursuits
- E. Concepts of Self, Morality, and Values

IV. Career Development
- A. Social Significance of Work
- B. Occupational Exploration
- C. Occupational Preparation
- D. Occupational Education (Adult)

Many objectives in this social studies guide relate directly to objectives of Missouri's Statewide Assessment, as is shown in Table III on page 59. (Statewide Assessment Objectives are numbered according to the form III C 1, which indicates the reference is to Objective 1 for III C above, "Social Development, Governmental Institutions-Citizenship.")

Social Studies Goals

I. **Understands social relationships.** (See pp. 45-50)
   A. Understands relationships between individuals and groups.
   B. Understand relationships between people and environments.
   C. Understands the influence of culture, institutions, and groups upon each other and upon human life.
   D. Understands matters related to economics.
   E. Understands matters related to politics, law and government.
   F. Understands the history, manifestations, causes, consequences, and interrelationships of social changes.
   G. Understands human problems, including human conflict and methods of its control.

II. **Uses information-acquisition skills relevant to social studies.** (See pp. 50-52)
   A. Acquires information by interview and direct observation.
   B. Acquires information from printed material, such as books, newspapers, and magazines.
   C. Acquires information from maps and globes; produces maps.
   D. Acquires information from graphs and tables.
   E. Acquires information from photographs, works of art, and cartoons.
   F. Acquires information and insights from radio, film, and television.
   G. Uses library resources efficiently to find desired materials.

III. **Uses skills related to conducting inquiry** (See pp. 52-53)
   A. Formulates plan to investigate problems or issues.
   B. Locates and evaluates relevant information.
   C. Organizes information.
   D. Evaluates the outcomes of the investigation.

IV. **Communicates ideas clearly to others.** (See pp. 53-54)
   A. Presents ideas clearly in writing.
   B. Presents ideas clearly in oral presentations.

V. **Participates rationally in decision-making discussions.** (See pp. 54-55)
   A. Understands the specific issue or public policy question.
   B. Uses rational strategies in dealing with subissues.
   C. Helps keep the discussion moving productively.

VI. **Works effectively with others in groups, regardless of differences in their cultural perspectives.** (See pp. 55-56)
   A. Facilitates communication within the group.
   B. Participates effectively in formal meetings.

VII. **Participates in efforts to influence public policy decisions and decision makers.** (See p. 56)
   A. Makes rational decisions concerning public policy questions.
   B. Uses rational means to help bring about desired changes.
   C. Evaluates results of efforts.

VIII. **Recognizes and demonstrates qualities of character desirable in citizens.** (See p. 57)

Name _____ Date _____

Your Position _____
(Parent, Teacher, Administrator, etc.)

Course/Grade Level you teach, if appropriate _____

Social Studies Objectives

(This space is reserved for local school districts to type in their own directions for how they want the objectives to be rated. For examples, see pp. 40-41.)

I. Understands Social Relationships

A. Understands relationships between individuals and groups.

_____ (Rating) 1. Understands human needs and emotions.

_____ 2. Understands causes and consequences of changes in emotions.

_____ 3. Understands ways in which people meet each other's needs in groups.

_____ 4. Understands the variety of roles individuals can have within a group.

_____ 5. Understands that roles may be assigned or achieved.

_____ 6. Understands that one individual may have different roles in different groups.

_____ 7. Understands that different role expectations for one person might create conflicting demands upon that person (role conflicts); understands consequences of role conflicts.

_____ 8. Understands that people's concepts and judgments of themselves are influenced by experiences with people they consider important.

_____ 9.

_____ 10.

B. Understands relationships between people and their environments.

_____ 1. Locates places and features on maps and globes. (Local districts would determine *which* places and features.)

_____ 2. Understands that the natural environment, which includes human beings, is an interdependent system.

_____ 3. Understands that satisfaction of human needs depends directly or indirectly on natural resources.

_____ 4. Understands how human societies relate to each other and to their environments.

_____ 5. Understands how culture, including technology, affects relationships between people and their environments.

_____ 6. Understands the global nature and current status of many environmental issues and problems.

_____ 7. Understands costs and benefits of alternative ways of using the environment.

_____ 8. Understands effects of the spatial distribution of resources upon peoples, groups, and nations.

_____ 9.

_____ 10.

C. Understands the influence of cultures, institutions, and groups upon each other and upon human life.

_____ 1. Understands the types of groups and institutions people form and their functions.

_____ 2. Understands how people learn beliefs, values, and behavior patterns.

_____ 3. Understands interrelationships among various groups and institutions.

_____ 4. Understands relationships among minority and dominant groups in various societies.

_____ 5. Understands factors which facilitate or restrict social mobility in various communities and societies.

_____ 6. Understands the influence of culture upon individuals and societies.

_____ 7. Understands how different cultures meet basic human needs in different ways (in ways that seem as natural to peoples of other cultures as our ways seem to us).

_____ 8. Understands that people from different cultures have concepts, beliefs, values, and attitudes that are profoundly different from those of people from other cultures.

_____ 9. Understands differences and similarities among values, beliefs, and behavior patterns within and among various cultural and ethnic groups.

_____ 10. Understands the cultures, historical experiences, social realities, and existential conditions of various ethnic groups

_____ 11.

_____ 12.

D, Understands matters related to economics. (Adapted from Hansen, et al., 1977, from Missouri's BEST, and from draft citizenship/social studies objectives of the National Assessment of Economic Progress.)

_____ 1. Understands basic economic goals (e.g., freedom, efficiency, equity, full employment, price stability, security, growth, and health).

_____ 2. Understands basic economic decisions that need to be made in order to achieve basic goals (e.g., what to produce, how to produce, for whom to produce).

_____ 3. Understands how factors like human resources, natural resources, capital, specialization, communication, and transportation relate to the production of goods and services. (BEST G/E 7)

_____ 4. Understands and uses the concepts of scarcity, opportunity costs, trade offs, cost-benefit analysis, and risk in relationship to economic decision making. (BEST G/E 11)

_____ 5. Understands what part tradition, markets, and authority play in economic decision making in this nation and other nations.

_____ 6. Understands how economic decisions affect individuals and groups.

_____ 7. Understands relationships among consumption, savings, profits, investment, and production. (BEST G/E 7, 8)

_____ 8. Understands how various economic institutions like banks, stock market, businesses, labor unions, and insurance companies help meet human needs. (Best G/E 13)

_____ 9. Understands rights and responsibilities of consumers, how to redress grievances responsibly and effectively. (BEST G/E 12)

_____ 10. Understands how one change in an economy results in other changes. (BEST G/E 10)

_____ 11. Understands how property is owned and how production is financed in the public (governmental) and private sectors of the U.S. economy. (BEST G/E 8, 9)

_____ 12. Understands relationships among supply, demand, and prices of goods and services (including labor) in market economics. (BEST G/E 10)

_____ 13. Understands how businesses, households, and governments relate to each other and to prices, levels of employment, production, and income distribution. (BEST G/E 10)

_____ 14. Understands how governments influence economics. (BEST G/E 9)

_____ 15. Understands factors that influence economic behavior, such as profits, wages, interest rates, rents, location, division of labor.

_____ 16. Understands the effects that changing price and employment levels have on individuals and groups.

_____ 17. Understands potential conflicts among basic economic goals (e.g., economic freedom vs. economic security, economic growth vs. environmental quality, full employment vs. price stability, national vs. global interests).

_____ 18. Understands similarities and differences among the United States economy and the economies of other countries.

_____ 19. Understand similarities and differences between resource distribution, production levels, technology, and consumption patterns in the United States and in other countries.

_____ 20. Understands factors which contribute to economic development.

_____ 21. Uses the concept "the world as an interdependent economic system," when appropriate.

_____ 22. Understands global economic conditions and trends.

_____ 23. Understands the world of work.

_____ 24.

E. Understands matters related to politics, law, and government.

_____ 1. Understands various interpretations of the purposes of government.

_____ 2. Understands basic political principles expressed and implied in the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, court decisions, and laws.

_____ 3. Understands important events and trends in the development of government systems.

_____ 4. Understands similarities and differences between the principles and purposes of the political system of the United States and those of other nations.

_____ 5. Understands what the term "democracy" refers to. (BEST G/E 1)

_____ *6. Understands organizational principles of United States and Missouri government (e.g., federalism, limited government with individual rights, popular sovereignty, checks and balances) and their rationales.

_____ *7. Understands roles of various levels (federal, state, local) and branches (executive, legislative, judicial) of government, their relationships to each other, and how their roles and relationships have changed.

_____ 8. Understands that certain of people's wants become demands, which are channeled to the political system.

_____ 9. Understands the range, effects, and importance of decisions made by federal, state, and local governments.

_____ 10. Understands formal and informal processes by which laws, interpretations of law, and regulations are made in the United States. (BEST G/E 2)

_____ 11. Understands influences on government decision making, including those by citizens and interest groups. (BEST G/E 5)

_____ 12. Understands the limits on decision-making powers of the government (e.g., constitutional restraints, political constraints like public opinion, and practical constraints of limited time and costs).

_____ 13. Understands interests and goals of major economic, social, and political organizations in U.S. or in other political systems.

_____ 14. Understands roles of various government officials, of lobbyists, and of other people who work within the legal system. (BEST G/E 6)

_____ 15. Understands the role of political parties.

_____ 16. Knows the incumbents in important political positions.

_____ 17. Knows the major positions of specific office holders and candidates for office.

_____ 18. Understands nomination and campaign procedures; how, when, and with what qualifications public officials are elected, appointed, nominated, and removed from office.

_____ 19. Understands registration and voting procedures.

*These objectives relate to the legal requirement that Missouri schools teach federal and state constitutions. See Chapter VI Section on Missouri Revised Statutes 170.011.

_____ 20. Understands the purposes of law.

_____ *21. Understands how courts are organized.

_____ 22. Understands how legal and judicial decisions are made, as well as how conflicts in laws or legal principles are resolved within nations and among nations.

_____ 23. Understands the impact and dynamic nature of law at local, state, national, international levels.

_____ 24. Understands limitations of formal legal processes in resolving disputes.

_____ *25. Understands and appreciates the rights and liberties guaranteed in United States and Missouri Constitutions. (BEST G/E 1)

_____ 26. Understands situations in which rights have been denied.

_____ 27. Understands that an individual's rights may conflict with those of another individual or with the general welfare, that in some situations limits are placed on individual rights and freedoms. (BEST G/E 4)

_____ *28. Understands relationships between democratic values (liberty, equality, justice, rule of law, peace and order, consent of the governed) and specific rules and laws, including those in the United States and Missouri Constitutions. (BEST G/E 1)

_____ 29. Recognizes the existence of civil and criminal justice systems and which types of cases are under the jurisdiction of one or both of those systems. (BEST G/E 4)

_____ 30. Knows the duties of participants in the court. (BEST G/E 6)

_____ 31. Understands how other political systems are similar to and different from the political system of the United States.

_____ 32. Understands how the United Nations is similar to and different from the government of the United States in its purposes, its authority, in the limits on its authority, in its decision making processes, in its resources, and in its organization.

_____ 33.

_____ 34.

_____ 35.

F. Understands the history, manifestations, causes, consequences, and interrelationships of social changes.

_____ 1. Understands changes that have occurred (in technology, ways of thinking, governance, social structures).

_____ 2. Understands factors which contribute to changes.

_____ 3. Understands the extent to which specific changes were accidental, spontaneous, or planned.

_____ 4. Understands the impact of various individuals and groups on specific changes.

_____ 5. Understands the short and long-range effects (non-effects) of specific changes.

_____ 6. Understands the significance of specific changes from the perspectives of other people—people from different ethnic groups, social classes, or cultures.

_____ 7. Understands major social, economic, and political problems people need to deal with, given trends and conditions.

_____ 8. Understands modern social change from a global perspective and how changes in one part of the world affect other areas.

_____ 9. Understands ways in which the past is different from the present.

_____ 10. Understands current problems by comparing them with analogous situations from the past.

_____ 11.

_____ 12.

G. Understands human problems, including human conflict and methods of its control.

_____ 1. Understands common concerns of people around the world.

_____ 2. Understands that the criteria for evaluating concerns may vary from culture to culture.

_____ 3. Understands probable consequences (local to worldwide) of decisions made by individuals, communities, and nations.

_____ 4. Understands various alternative futures for the nation and world.

_____ 5. Understands different forms human conflict may take (arguments, strikes, trials, riots, wars).

_____ 6. Understands specific conflict situations, their antecedent conditions, and consequences.

_____ 7. Understands potential sources of modern conflict within and among groups.

_____ 8. Understands how various conflicts affect people.

_____ 9. Understands what mechanisms exist to help resolve human problems and prevent and resolve conflicts.

_____ 10. Understands the role of law—local, national, and international—in preventing and resolving disputes.

_____ 11.

_____ 12.

II. Uses information-acquisition skills relevant to social studies.

A. Acquires information by direct observation and by interview.

_____ 1. Knows which sense(s) to use to gather specific information.

_____ 2. Understands the value of using more than one sense to gather information.

_____ 3. Understands the limitations of the senses as a method of obtaining information.

_____ 4. Learns from direct observation, describing what was observed and drawing inferences.

_____ 5. Identifies people who may serve as reliable sources of information on a given subject.

_____ 6. Frames and asks appropriate questions to obtain desired information.

_____ 7. Listens actively (pays attention, is able to paraphrase and draw correct inferences from what is said, takes notes when helpful and appropriate).

_____ 8.

_____ 9.

B. Acquires information from printed material, such as books, newspapers, and magazines.

_____ 1. Uses books efficiently (studies title page, table of contents, glossary, index, graphic aids; takes notes to aid in study). (BEST R/LA 6, 13, 16)

_____ 2. Clarifies the purpose for reading. (BEST R/LA 7)

_____ 3. Adjusts pace of reading to the purpose. (BEST R/LA 7)

_____ 4. Understands meanings of social studies concepts.

_____ 5. Recalls facts, series of facts, and main ideas. (BEST R/LA 6)

_____ 6. Draws inferences from reading.

_____ 7. Evaluates the accuracy, worth, and quality of the material (considers authorship, internal consistency, use of stereotypes, purpose of material). (BEST R/LA 7)

_____ 8. Uses the different sections of the newspaper to find desired information. (BEST R/LA 10, 20)

_____ 9.

_____ 10.

C. Acquires information from maps and globes; produces maps.

_____ 1. Uses symbols to interpret maps and globes. (BEST R/LA 13; BEST M 8)

_____ 2. Determines directions. (BEST R/LA 13; BEST M 8)

_____ 3. Determines distances. (BEST R/LA 13; BEST M 8)

_____ 4. Select maps appropriate for inquiry. (BEST R/LA 13, 16; BEST M 8)

_____ 5. Draws inferences; states and tests hypotheses. (BEST R/LA 13; BEST M 8)

_____ 6. Produces maps to communicate information.

_____ 7.

_____ 8.

D. Acquires information from graphs and tables.

_____ 1. Uses the title and headings to determine what may be learned from specific graphs or tables. (BEST R/LA 13, 16; BEST M 8)

_____ 2. Obtains specific information from graphs and tables. (BEST R/LA 13; BEST M 8)

_____ 3. Draws inferences; proposes and tests hypotheses based on analysis of graphs and tables. (BEST R/LA 13; BEST M 8)

_____ 4.

_____ 5.

E. Acquires information from photographs, works of art, and from cartoons.

_____ 1. Describes what is literally shown in photographs, works of art, or cartoons. (BEST R/LA 13)

_____ 2. Draws inferences. (BEST R/LA 13)

_____ 3.

_____ 4.

F. Acquires information and insights from radio, film, and television.

_____ 1. Separates fact from opinion, the stereotypic from the realistic.

_____ 2. Seeks details concerning significant headlined events and in-depth radio and television reports. (BEST R/LA 10, 16, 20)

_____ 3. Recognizes when television reduces, distorts, and oversimplifies time, space, events, and character.

_____ 4. Understands techniques used by political and commercial advertisers. Evaluates claims made on radio and television. (BEST R/LA 17)

_____ 5.

_____ 6.

G. Uses library resources efficiently to find desired materials.

_____ 1. Uses dictionaries, almanacs, and atlases. (BEST R/LA 5 and 16)

_____ 2. Uses library tools such as card catalogues, vertical files, book coding systems, and the *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature*, to find information. (BEST R/LA 5 and 16)

_____ 3. Uses reference librarians to find material not immediately available from other sources. (BEST R/LA 5 and 16)

_____ 4.

_____ 5.

III. Uses skills related to conducting inquiry.

A. Formulates plans to investigate problems or issues.

_____ 1. Defines topic of inquiry.

_____ 2. Determines in a general sense what form the final report will take, and formulates plans to complete the inquiry on schedule.

_____ 3.

_____ 4.

B. Locates and evaluates relevant information.

_____ 1. Formulates questions likely to lead to needed information (clearly stating questions, avoiding biased or leading questions).

_____ 2. Locates sources of information likely to be relevant and reliable. (See Goal Area II G above)

_____ 3. Evaluates relevance and reliability of the available information.

_____ 4. Identifies what further information is needed in an inquiry.

_____ 5.

_____ 6.

C. Organizes information.

_____ 1. Records information so that it may be restructured. (e.g., records single ideas on single sheets of paper or on note cards with the source listed.)

_____ 2. Groups bits of information together that fit together on logical grounds.

_____ 3. Identifies relationships among ideas.

_____ 4. Summarizes information into some form of a functional outline.

_____ 5. Communicates ideas clearly to others. (See Section IV below)

_____ 6.

_____ 7.

D. Evaluates the outcomes of the investigation.

_____ 1. Seeks further information, where possible, to test one's conclusions.

_____ 2. Uses new information to modify conclusions, when appropriate.

_____ 3. Understands the limits of one's own knowledge, the need to be tentative concerning one's conclusions.

_____ 4.

_____ 5.

IV. Communicates ideas clearly to others.

A. Presents ideas clearly in writing.

_____ 1. Writes in an organized manner (Introduction, logical development of ideas, and a conclusion).

_____ 2. Supports major ideas with specific examples, relevant analogies, and references to appropriate authorities. (BEST R/LA 6)

_____ 3. Communicates clearly to the intended audience with appropriate vocabulary and varied sentence structure. (BEST R/LA 14)

_____ 4. Proofreads and uses appropriate references to minimize errors in mechanics. (BEST R/LA 15)

_____ 5. Revises or restructures draft to improve meaningfulness and impact.

_____ 6. Supports writing, where desirable, with charts, tables, and illustrations.

_____ 7.

_____ 8.

B. Presents ideas clearly in oral presentations.

_____ 1. Presents ideas in ways that facilitate listener's understanding and recall (orients and captures attention of listener, presents ideas in logical sequence, summarizes ideas). (BEST R/LA 14)

_____ 2. Supports ideas with concrete examples or relevant analogies. (I A 16)

_____ 3. Uses vocabulary appropriate for the topic and the intended audience. (BEST R/LA 14)

_____ 4. Uses voice and gestures to capture attention and be heard. (BEST R/LA 14)

_____ 5. Supports presentation with functional visuals, when appropriate. (BEST R/LA 14)

_____ 6.

V. Participates rationally in decision-making discussions. For more information related to the skills below, see Oliver and Newmann (1967), and Shaver and Larkins (1973).

A. Understands the specific issue or public policy question.

_____ 1. States the issue in the form of a question (e.g.: should this city tear down some houses to build a park and a swimming pool?).

_____ 2. Identifies alternative courses of action.

_____ 3. Relates courses of action to social values (e.g.: to build a park and swimming pool would be to serve the *general welfare* of the community; to tear down people's homes would be to reduce the *property rights* of the people whose homes would be taken).

_____ 4. Identifies subissues as they come up when discussing alternative courses of action (e.g.: would many people be forced to move? Is such a project humane? How shall "many" and "humane" be defined? Does the city have the legal power to carry out this program?)

_____ 5. Classifies subissues properly (e.g.: in Objective V A 4 the first subissue is a *factual question*, the second is a *value question*, the third is a *definitional question*, and the fourth is a *legal question*).

_____ 6.

B. Uses rational strategies in dealing with issues and subissues.

_____ 1. Identifies relationships among subissues (e.g.: whether the project mentioned above in V A 3 is humane, a *value question*, depends upon how "humane" is defined, a *definitional question*, and depends also upon how individuals are treated, a *factual question*).

_____ 2. Uses appropriate strategies in dealing with *value questions* [identifies conflicting values (e.g.: property rights vs. general welfare); considers hypothetical and analogous cases involving the same conflicting values (expensive homes are torn down to make a safer expressway, slums are torn down for privately owned stores, a young man is drafted to help defend his country); takes positions on those cases; compares those positions to the one initially taken in case at hand; determines principles to govern in choosing between the two values in cases like this one]*

_____ 3. Uses appropriate strategies in dealing with *factual questions* (critical analysis of relevant information; considering the size and representativeness of the sample, biases, position of the observer, expertise of witnesses, etc.)

_____ 4. Uses appropriate strategies in dealing with *definitional questions* (uses authoritative references or reaches agreement on criteria for a common definition, relates items to be defined to criteria of definition).

_____ 5. Uses appropriate strategies in dealing with *legal questions* (contacts people with legal expertise; examines statutes and case decisions).

_____ 6.

_____ 7.

C. Helps to keep discussion moving productively.

_____ 1. Recognizes need for and helps formulate agendas.

_____ 2. Considers alternative courses of action and their short and long-term consequences (e.g.: If the park is built where houses are now located, will the park really be used? If no park is built at all, what consequences are likely?)

_____ 3. Qualifies one's position when it becomes clear that the position is weak and hard to support.

_____ 4. Summarizes the discussion; provides transitions.

_____ 5. Makes a rational decision (decision based upon consideration of issues, subissues, and probable consequences).

_____ 6.

_____ 7.

VI. Works effectively with others in groups, regardless of differences in their cultural perspectives.

A. Facilitates communication within the group.

_____ 1. Listens carefully to others, being receptive to their ideas.

*These strategies are similar to those used by a court when it must weigh conflicting values. Analogous cases and prior decisions are examined to help clarify the current case.

_____ 2. Encourages others to express views and opinions.

_____ 3. Recognizes emotions operating within a group and allows for their expression.

_____ 4. Asks for clarification and elaboration of others' ideas.

_____ 5. Seeks areas of agreement in discussion; tries to understand nature of disagreements.

B. Participates effectively in formal meetings.

_____ 1. Helps determine the agenda, the tasks to be accomplished, how to proceed.

_____ 2. Assumes constructive roles in group decision-making processes (keeping the group on task, mediating between people who take opposing positions, raising questions, presenting opposing positions, encouraging people to express more of their ideas). The need for the various roles changes from group to group and situation to situation.

_____ 3. Conducts and participates in meetings using parliamentary procedure.

VII. Participates in efforts to influence public policy decisions and decision makers.

A. Makes rational decisions concerning public policy questions. (See Objectives for V above.)

B. Uses rational means to help bring about desired changes.

_____ 1. Defines objectives.

_____ 2. Determines which individuals have decision-making power in areas related to the objectives.

_____ 3. Determines what individuals or groups support or oppose the objectives.

_____ 4. Plans and executes strategies to influence the decision makers (becoming well-informed; making telephone calls; writing letters; attending meetings; participating in petition campaigns; supporting political candidates; speaking with lobbyists and government officials).

_____ 5.

_____ 6.

C. Evaluates results of efforts.

_____ 1. Reconstructs the chain of events that took place.

_____ 2. Evaluates the political participation efforts, taking into consideration factors both within and beyond control of the students.

_____ 3. Draws conclusions on what was learned (a) about government and (b) about means of influencing policy makers.

_____ 4. Proposes strategies that could be used in similar situations in the future.

_____ 5.

_____ 6.

VIII. Recognizes and demonstrates qualities of character that are desirable in citizens. (*We offer these cautions:* First, the list below is not complete. Second, character and patterns of behavior are developed in many settings, only one of which is the social studies classroom. Third, individuals are unique and should not be forced to fit a uniform mold so far as these qualities are concerned. Fourth, behavior that is desirable in one setting or situation may be undesirable in another.) The following is a partial list of qualities of character desirable in citizens:

Social Concern
Patience
Initiative
Persistence
Respect for Others
Integrity
Open Mindedness
Commitment
Assertiveness
Cooperativeness
Empathy
Responsibility
Compassion

Relating objectives of this Chapter to the activities of Chapter VII

In Chapter VII, 37 activities are described which relate to objectives in this chapter. In Table II the activities are related to the general objectives.

Table II

Relationships among objectives of Chapter V with activities of Chapter VII

General Objective	Activity Number*
I. Understands social phenomena	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35
II. Uses information-acquisition skills relevant to social studies	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 34, 35
III. Uses skills related to conducting inquiry	7, 8, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 34
IV. Communicates ideas clearly to others	2, 13, 14, 15, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 34
V. Participates rationally in decision-making activities	14, 15, 19, 21, 31, 33, 34, 35, 36
VI. Works effectively with others in groups	2, 7, 8, 11, 13, 14, 15, 19, 20, 21, 22, 25, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35
VII. Participates in efforts to influence public policy decisions and decision makers	14, 15, 22, 34, 35
VIII. Recognizes and demonstrates qualities of character that are desirable in citizens	1, 2, 7, 14, 15, 19, 22, 25, 26, 27, 30, 32, 33, 34, 35

*These activities may be found beginning on the following pages within Chapter VII: Activity 1 (page 91), 2 (91), 3 (92), 4 (93), 5 (94), 6 (95), 7 (97), 8 (97), 9 (98), 10 (100), 11 (101), 12 (103), 13 (104), 14 (109), 15 (110), 16 (112), 17 (113), 18 (115), 19 (117), 20 (119), 21 (119), 22 (120), 23 (123), 24 (123), 25 (124), 26 (125), 27 (128), 28 (129), 29 (129), 30 (131), 31 (132), 32 (134), 33 (134), 34 (135), 35 (135), 36 (137), and 37 (140).

Summary Sheet for the Social Studies Objectives

Objectives	Is objective important in K-12 curriculum (✓)? of High priority (+)?	Mark with a "✓" if the objective is important in the grade level or course. Mark with a "+" if the objective is of high priority.													Electives							
		K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12								

Table III

Relationships among objectives of this guide and objectives of statewide assessment

Objective of this Guide	Statewide Assessment Objectives Related to the Specific Objective
I B 4	III B 2; III C 14
I B 5	I D 11; II A 6; III C 14
I B 6	I D 3, 6, 10; II A 6; III A 6, 9; III C 14
I C 1	I C 15; III A 5, 9, 16; III C 14; III E 1
I C 2	III B 17
I C 3	III C 14
I C 4	III B 4, 9, 15; III C 14; III E 3
I C 5	III B 14
I C 6	I C 16, 25, 26; III B 1; III E 4
I C 7	III B 6
I C 8	III B 1, 3, 6, 13; III E 1
I C 9	III B 1, 3, 4, 8, 13, 15
I C 10	III B 4, 6, 7, 8, 13, 14, 15
I D 4	I C 1, 29
I D 5	I C 3; III C 1
I D 7	I C 2
I D 8, 9	III C 14
I D 10	III C 14, IV A 21
I D 12	IV A 24
I D 20-22	I C 14
I D 23	IV A 2, 4, 5, 19, 25; IV B 2, 5, 8, 9; IV D 11
I E 3	III C 14
I E 5	III C 1
I E 6	III C 14
I E 7	I C 24; III C 2, 14
I E 8	I C 1
I E 11	I C 23; III B 18, 21
I E 13	III B 11
I E 23	III C 5, 24
I E 25	III C 3
I E 27	I C 5; III C 8, 14
I E 28	III C 3
I F 1	I B 23; I C 6, 7, 8, 9, 14, 21
I F 2	I B 23; I C 6, 7, 8, 9, 14, 21; I F 18
I F 3	I C 14, 19
I F 4	III C 14
I F 5	I C 17; III C 14; IV A 23; IV B 11
I F 6	I B 12, 14; III C 14
I F 8	III A 6; III C 14
I G 5	I C 10
I G 6	I C 11, 12; III C 14
I G 7	III C 14
I G 8	I C 12
I G 9	I C 12, 13, 24; III B 18; III C 5, 6; III E 4, 6
II A 4	I D 15, 17
II A 6	I A 8
II A 7	I A 2, 8, 9, 11, 14
II B 4	I C 29
II B 6	I A 19
II B 7	I A 2, 9, 10, 19
II C 1-3	I C 32
II C 4	I C 32; I D 16
II C 5	I C 32; I E 17
II D 1-3	I B 15; I C 32
II E 1	I F 3
II E 2	I F 3, 18, 19
II F 1	I A 2, 9, 10, 11
II F 3	I A 9
II F 4	I A 2, 9, 10, 11
III A 1	I A 22; I C 30; I D 16
III A 2	I A 22; I C 30
III B 1	I A 22; I C 30; I D 16, 17
III B 2,3	I A 22; I C 30; I D 16
III C 2	I A 22; I C 27, 28, 29, 30; I D 16
III C 3	I A 22; I C 30; I D 16
III C 4	I A 16, 22; I C 30; I D 16
III D 1	I A 22; I C 30; I D 17
III D 2	I A 22; I C 30; I D 19
III D 3	I A 22; I C 30
IV A 1, 2	I A 16
IV A 4, 5	I A 23
IV A 6	I B 16; I C 32
IV B 1	I A 14, 16
IV B 2	I A 16
IV B 3	I A 14
IV B 5	I B 16; I C 32
V A 1	I E 1, 10; III A 7
V A 2	I E 1
V A 5	I C 27
V B 1	I A 11; I D 17, 18
V B 2	I C 5, 6; I C 31; III A 7; III E 4
V B 3	I A 2, 9, 22; I C 30, 32; I D 15, 17, 18, 19; I E 5
V B 4	I C 27, 28, 29
V B 5	I A 22; I C 27, 28, 29
V C 1	I A 8
V C 2	I A 8, 11; III D 6
V C 3	I A 8, 11; I C 13; I D 9; III A 2, 3; III D 6
V C 5	I E 5, 6, 8, 9; III D 6
VI A 1	I A 6, 11
VI A 2	I A 4, 6, 8; I E 11; II C 10; II E 1
VI A 3	I A 8; I E 11; III E 1
VI B 1	I A 8; I C 40; I E 11
VI B 2, 3	I A 8; I C 40; I E 11; III E 9
VII B 1	I E 2
VII B 2, 3	I E 3
VII B 4	I A 3; I C 40; III C 4, 12
VII C 2-4	I E 9

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Chapter VI
Developing a K-12 Sequence for Social Studies

How are decisions made about the structure of the social studies curriculum from kindergarten through grade 12? In local school districts several factors are influential, including school board priorities, personal interests of teachers, available textbooks, national trends, local tradition, and State Department of Education suggestions. *Ideally, the K-12 sequence of units and courses should be based upon valid principles and should be clearly understood by everyone who teaches social studies.*

Missouri has avoided a state-prescribed sequence of courses for social studies to allow local educators to design programs that would best meet local needs as they see them. Some laws and rules, however, do relate to social studies. Section 170.11, Revised Statutes of Missouri, reads:

1. Regular courses of instruction in the constitution of the United States and of the State of Missouri and in American history and institutions shall be given in all public and private schools in the state of Missouri, except privately operated trade schools, and shall begin not later than the seventh grade and continue in high school, college and university courses to an extent determined by the state commissioner of education.
2. No pupil shall receive a certificate of graduation from any public or private school other than private trade schools unless he has satisfactorily passed an examination on the provisions and principles of the constitution of the United States and of the state of Missouri, and in American history and American institutions. . . .

The law does not specify how the instruction is to be carried out or in what grade levels, except that such study must *begin* before grade 8 and *continue* into high school. Moreover, students must pass tests on the Constitutions and United States history and institutions sometime during or after grade 9 as a prerequisite for high school graduation. (Missouri law defines high school as grades 9 through 12). How the law is to be implemented is left with the State Commissioner of Education, who has permitted local districts to develop their own course sequences and tests. Some specific suggestions are listed later in this chapter beginning on p. 69.

In addition to the above law, the Department of Elementary and Secondary Education requires the teaching of social studies at elementary, middle school/junior high, and senior high levels as part of its school classification standards. AAA high schools must offer at least five and AA high schools must offer at least four social studies courses. Students must pass at least one social studies course in high school to meet the minimum state requirement for high school graduation.

Handbook for Classification and Accreditation of Public Schools in Missouri (1973).

Such requirements leave to local school districts the task of defining their course offerings and their required sequences. Local districts usually require more courses in social studies for graduation than the state minimum of one unit.

What content should social studies programs include?

When we think of what social studies *can* include, we are immediately confronted with the economic problem of unlimited wants and scarce resources. The "unlimited wants" in this case means that people might want almost everything included in social studies; the "scarce resources" refers primarily to the limited time educators have for instruction in social studies. Within the National Council for the Social Studies itself there are twenty-one Special Interest Groups (SIGs), some of which include: Economic and Consumer Education, Environmental Education, Future Studies, Geography, Global Education, History, International Exchange, Law-Related Education, Moral Education, Multicultural Education, Political Education, Psychology Education, Reading in the Social Studies, Studies about Religion, Sex Equity in the Social Studies, and Urban Education. If we assume only one separate semester course is designed for each of those areas and that high school students would take one of these courses for each semester while in high school, it would take over seven years to complete these courses! Moreover, the list is not complete! Career education, energy education, family life education, and disciplines like anthropology and sociology are not listed as separate SIGs.

How does a district include all that needs to be included? First, it must recognize that it cannot do everything and that it must remain true to the purposes of social studies in public schools. In Chapter II we recommended that the purpose be directly related to citizenship education (see p. 11). Other purposes such as helping students test out of college level courses or helping students become experts in the law or in specialized periods of history, should be regarded as secondary in importance.

Second, the district should remember that it is not fulfilling its responsibility to provide a comprehensive citizenship education program if important parts of the program may only be taken in electives that students could elect not to take. Important parts of citizenship education should be incorporated in parts of the program all students take. Those facets should include components like these:

☑ **Idea for staff development:** *Examine these components at a staff meeting. What else should be emphasized? Which of these components need more emphasis?*

1. American studies, including:
   a. American geography
   b. American history, including the roles of men and women of different races and national origins in American history
   c. American government, including state and local government
   d. American economics
   e. How America relates to other countries and peoples
2. Global studies, including:
   a. Geography of the globe
   b. World history
   c. Study of selected cultures, their beliefs, values, patterns of behavior, political and economic systems, and accomplishments
   d. Study of interrelationships among nations and cultures of this planet
3. Study of current problems, including:
   a. Their causes and consequences
   b. Their relationship to other problems and changes
   c. Methods of dealing with those problems
4. Study of how individuals in the United States relate to:
   a. The marketplace
   b. The world of work
   c. The government
   d. The world
5. Opportunities to observe and act directly in the local community and

to get practice in making and evaluating decisions that have social ramifications.

Other components may be added:

6.

7.

The above components may be woven into social studies programs in many ways. One way is to build courses and units around them. For some of those components, however, full courses and units need not be used: such components as 1 a and e, 2 a and d; 3, 4, and 5 could be studied during blocks of time of one day per week or one week per month. Setting aside such blocks of time permits the flexibility needed to investigate items in the news and to explore other matters of importance like career exploration or consumer law that may not relate directly to the course being taught. In any case, the quality of instruction depends upon clearly defined objectives and quality activities related to those objectives.

General principles for sequencing social studies courses

What do we know about children that may help us decide what content to use in the various grade levels?

When young children enter school for the first time, they are not totally ignorant in matters related to social studies. They already have some ideas related to such concepts as authority, justice, and social role. They usually know that there is a President of the United States and that there are such people as police, fire fighters, and mail carriers. They have ideas about sex roles (such as mothers are women), and they often have sex-related stereotypes (doctors are men, whereas nurses are women). They know that they can get candy at a store using something called money. Perhaps more important, they know that certain specific actions on their part will lead to certain consequences, causing joy, anger, or anxiety to themselves or others.

These children, however, still have much to learn. In fact, in every area mentioned above they have only begun developing concepts which they expand upon and clarify throughout their lives. For example, their notions of justice are very much restricted by their egocentric view of the world, their inability to view events from another person's perspective. Justice at first may mean simply following "immutable" rules established by adults. Children may not understand the reasons for those rules and may not recognize any difference between a rule like "eat everything on your plate" and "don't hit." As they get older, participate more in rule-making activities, and become better able to reason abstractly, they develop the ability to evaluate rules by general ethical principles ("I shouldn't do something to another person that I wouldn't want done to me," or "Everyone should be treated fairly"). The development of a mature concept of justice is slow. Some psychologists like Lawrence Kohlberg believe they have discovered stages of moral development related to the concept of justice. As children get older, their ideas of justice may progress in this manner:

See J. Piaget, The Moral Judgment of the Child (1965).

1. Follow rules to avoid punishment.
2. What's right is what gets me what I want.
3. What's right is what my friends or family say is right.
4. What's right is what legal authority says is right.
5. What's right is what we freely agree to, so long as it does not violate the rights of others.
6. What's right is what is consistent with moral principle.

Based on stages proposed by Lawrence Kohlberg in "The Child as Moral Philosopher" (1968).

Other concepts also develop over time from simple, sometimes inaccurate notions to ones that are more mature. For example, young children may know candy comes from stores; yet they have no idea of what work goes into its production, how it is bought by the store, where the money comes from to buy it, how it is sold for profit, or how it represents a risk to the store owner. Their notions of "presidency" may at first be undifferentiated from the person who holds the office. As they get older, however, they come to understand that the presidency is an office that someone holds for a time, and that there are definite powers and limits to the power of the presidency.

Many young children know that there are people who are different from themselves. Some young children even fear and dislike people who seem different. Those concepts also could change, although it is by no means certain that everyone will become able to understand others (just as it is by no means certain everyone will develop mature concepts of justice).

Considerations like those above do not indicate what content should be taught during each grade of the school's curriculum. Yet, these ideas are extremely useful. They remind us that children grow not only in a physical sense; they also grow cognitively in their understanding of the world. A single concept is not learned at age 6, to remain unchanged from then on. *Thus, in a social studies program committed to helping students understand and participate in society, it is essential to deal with important concepts several times beginning in primary grades and continuing through high school.*

Such concepts include rights, responsibilities, political power, democracy, culture, change, stability, norms, decision making, values, beliefs, and interrelatedness, to name a few.

For example, the economic concept of "opportunity cost" could be dealt with as follows: 20¢ spent for candy cannot be used for a pencil (primary grades); time spent delivering newspapers cannot be spent playing ball (intermediate grades); tax money spent for a new school cannot be spent for a hospital (junior high grades); deficit spending under certain conditions contributes to higher prices, or one cannot go to college to be a doctor and also hold a full-time job (senior high grades).

The actual course sequence is less important than remaining consistent with these principles:

☑ **Idea for staff development:** *Consider this question: To what extent is our current K-12 sequence consistent with these principles?*

1. *Topics should not be too abstract for students.* Their ability to handle abstract concepts increases as they get older; yet even adults have difficulty dealing with abstractions in areas unfamiliar to them. (Does the content we are proposing for this grade level require students to use concepts that are too abstract for them? Is the content necessarily abstract, or can it be made concrete and appropriate for children of this grade level?)
2. *Topics should be of interest to the students.* No topic that involves human beings need be boring to students; yet their interests do change as they get older and as their experiences and responsibilities change. (Does the content that we are proposing for this age level seem to be important to students? Can they identify with the problem?)
3. *Certain knowledge and skills must be mastered before some topics can be studied productively.* Do students need to understand the U.S. Bill of Rights before studying Supreme Court decisions involving freedom of speech, press, and religion? Do students need to be able to read maps before studying world history? Do students need to understand ancient Greece and Rome before they study modern world history? Is the answer "yes" to all of the preceding three questions? Probably not. Faculty members may disagree with each other, and in the process may clarify their thinking about how to sequence instructional content.
4. *Are important content, concepts, and objectives being taught at all grade levels?* Schools cannot teach everything historians know about U.S. history during grades K-12, to say nothing about world history, government, economics, and other areas of the social sciences. Schools must be selective and much more certain that what they teach in every

grade can be justified as being important for students as individuals and as members of this society. (Is all of the content we propose for this grade important? What can we eliminate? What ought we give more emphasis?)

5. *Important concepts and objectives should be taught several times from early school years through high school.* Each time, the concept should be dealt with in a fresh, new way, adding to its richness. (What concepts and objectives do we consider important for our students? Are we emphasizing those concepts with different content many times in the K-12 program?)

Some districts, in their concern for teaching students the 3 R's may forget the important role social studies should play in primary grades. Social studies is also a good subject in which to apply and extend the 3 R's.

Determining the K-6 social studies sequence

Local school districts should consider using the following steps in developing their K-6 sequence of social studies courses:

Steps 1 and 2 may be dealt with concurrently.

1. Determine which social studies objectives are considered important by the local district. The "Social Studies Objectives" rating sheets found in Chapter V (pp. 45-57) may be used to help do so.
2. Examine different series of textbooks to determine which ones seem most likely to accomplish the objectives identified as important. Select a textbook series* based on criteria and using procedures like those suggested in Chapter VIII. Whatever is selected must not violate the sequencing principles noted above.
3. Use the textbook series selected to help determine the K-6 sequence, but plan to use other resources to supplement the textbook, and feel free to modify the K-6 sequence offered by the publisher.
4. Prepare a description of the K-6 sequence in language that communicates clearly to such audiences as teachers, school board members, and parents.

This approach allows the local district freedom to select those materials it considers best for its students. It also permits textbook publishers to be a major influence on the K-6 sequence, which some educators may question. The opposite procedure (first establishing a K-6 sequence and then looking for materials), however, too often discourages a district from even considering certain materials that may be excellent for its students. Textbooks, one important resource in the social studies curriculum, may be used to provide a common base that builds sequentially from one grade to the next.

At the end of this chapter (pp. 72-79) is an example of a scope and sequence developed by a Missouri school district in the 1978-79 school year. We are not suggesting that local districts adopt this sequence, especially since educators from the local school district will revise it as they use it and adopt new materials in the future. The scope and sequence is a good example, since it has these strengths: (a) It addresses itself in *each* grade level to topics or program components that the local district considers important. (b) It uses the practical procedure of building its sequence in the elementary grades around a textbook series, while also using other resources. (c) It identifies a manageable number of objectives for each grade level. (d) It develops important knowledge, skills, and attitudes in *every* level, including kindergarten.

There may, of course, be real problems of learning gaps and repetitions for the student who moves to a new school district. The district should strive to be sensitive to the problem and be sufficiently flexible to meet the student's needs. Even students who do not move are likely to have gaps in their knowledge, since there is no guarantee that content taught is content learned and remembered.

Another school district, using text materials developed by other publishers and using different topics, (including multicultural studies and current issues), components, and objectives, will develop a scope and sequence unlike the one cited on pp. 72-79 of this chapter. An advantage of curricular decision making at the local level is that local educators can use unique community and staff resources and instructional materials in ways that will best serve the needs of *their* students. When sound local curriculum

*A district may instead decide not to restrict itself to one textbook series.

decisions are made, students experience quality programs that lay the foundation of knowledge, skills, and values for their subsequent education, regardless of whether they remain in the local district or move to another district.

Determining the grade 7-12 social studies course sequence

Determining the social studies course sequence for grades 7-12 is different from determining the K-6 sequence since publishers do not publish textbooks in series for grades 7-12.

Many different secondary sequences are possible, as Table IV on page 67 indicates. In deciding which sequence is best for the local district, we recommend that the district consider the following factors:

1. Does the sequence allow the district to give sufficient emphasis to objectives it considers important, including, *but not limited to* those of the BEST?
2. Does the sequence expose students to significant topics of the community, state, nation, and world at times when students find those topics meaningful, interesting, and important?
3. Does the sequence provide a balance of history, current affairs, and future studies, of social sciences and humanities?
4. Is the sequence one in which instructional materials that are interesting, readable, and challenging may be found for the students?
5. Is the sequence one that relates well to the district's K-6 sequence?
6. Does the sequence allow some flexibility so that needs of students new to the school district can be met?

For example, consider the implications of the following on student interests: puberty (11-15); part-time jobs (14); drive car (16); vote (18); college and/or career decisions (17-18).

The local district may wish to consider other factors:

7.

8.

It is desirable for the committee that plans the secondary sequence to include elementary teachers and vice versa.

As important as the sequence of courses may seem, what is taught in each course and how it is taught are at least equally important. Two courses may be called "U.S. History I," but the two courses may differ drastically from one another. One course, for example, may concern itself with a very few of the objectives in Chapter V, whereas the other may emphasize a wide variety of those objectives. One course may focus fully on dominant social groups of American society, whereas the other may help students understand U.S. history also from the perspectives of minority groups. One course may be totally lecture and may involve students very little, whereas the other may feature a variety of instructional modes carefully selected to accomplish specific lesson objectives.

There are trade-offs involved when choosing one sequence rather than another. One may argue, for example, that U.S. history ought to be taught at grades 11 or 12 instead of grades 9 or 10 because the students are able to understand more when they are older. Yet the same argument could be given for teaching world history, government, economics, or psychology in grades 11 or 12, and not all of these courses and American history could be required for students in these grades. As in other cases where tradeoffs are involved, it is important to project consequences of the alternatives and make decisions using criteria determined to be important.

Table IV
Examples of Social Studies Course Sequences for Grades 7-12

	7	8	9	10	11	12
Example A	U.S. History	Applied Citizenship (government, economics, social issues, law, etc.)	World Geography (with emphasis on cultures of the world)	Modern U.S. History	World History	
					Electives*	

This sequence is listed for any school district not wanting to formulate its own secondary social studies sequence. Example of alternatives used by some school districts are listed below. These alternatives may be better for those and other districts because of differences in elementary curricula, staff strengths, and instructional materials available locally. *To date, no research has indicated one sequence of courses in social studies is superior to other sequences. Local districts are advised to examine and revise their own sequences taking into consideration the factors listed on pp. 64-65 of this guide.*

Example B	Non-Western Cultures (History and Geography)	U.S. History Through Reconstruction	U.S. History Since Reconstruction	World Geography and Cultures	World History	Government and Economics (½ unit)
					Electives	
Example C	U.S. History Through Reconstruction	U.S. History Since Reconstruction	World Geography	World History	Modern U.S. History	
					Electives	
Example D	World History (Prehistory to c. 1500)	U.S. History c. 1492 to c. 1900	U.S. History Since 1900 and Missouri Constitution	•World History (Age of Exploration to the present) •U.S. Government (½ unit)		
				Electives		
Example E	World Geography	U.S. History (Emphasis on 18th and 19th Centuries)	•U.S. History (Emphasis on late 19th Century to present) •World History •Introduction to Behavioral Sciences, Government, or Economics			
			Electives			
Example F**						

*Electives may include social sciences (psychology, economics, sociology, etc.), area studies (Asia, Middle East, etc.), history (Missouri history, ancient history, Western Civilization, etc.), practical social living (consumer economics, family living, etc.), contemporary issues, community studies, and future studies. Current events, social sciences, and student inquiry should be incorporated in all or most social studies courses.

**Since other acceptable examples of grades 7-12 sequences could be listed, Example F was left blank to symbolize the fact that other sequences should be considered.

Determining high school graduation requirements for social studies

As noted above on page 61, the Missouri Department of Education requires that a student complete at least one unit of social studies credit as a prerequisite for high school graduation.

Local districts often require more than the Department's minimum requirements, as the examples below indicate:

Each of the examples here represents an effort to assure some balance between American and World Studies.

Model	Examples of Local Graduation Requirements from Social Studies (others are possible.)
1	U.S. History (1 unit) and World History (1 unit)
2	U.S. History (1 unit), World History (1 unit), and electives (1 unit, ½ of which must be in American studies or economics).
3	American Studies (1 unit), World Studies (1 unit), and Behavioral Studies (1 unit)
4	U.S. history (1 unit), World history (1 unit), Government (½ unit), Economics (½ unit), Elective (1 unit)
5	

In deciding what to require:

1. Find out what students in fact are taking.
2. Determine whether the courses students are *actually* taking enable them to have significant learning experiences directly related to priority objectives of the local district (see Chapter V). When feasible, determine if students are mastering priority objectives.
3. Determine whether students are receiving a social studies education that is either (a) too specialized or (b) too superficial. (Students should have learning experiences that include *both* survey and in-depth studies.)
4. If in Steps 1, 2, and 3 it is found that many students are not enrolling in courses that develop the skills and knowledge the district considers important, the district should consider
   (a) increasing social studies course requirements for graduation,
   (b) requiring specific courses it feels are needed by everyone,
   (c) making modifications in the guidance given to students, and
   (d) eliminating or adding certain electives to reflect more directly those objectives the district considers important.

One district requires four years of social studies; another requires only one year. One district requires specific courses; another stresses electives. Other districts take middle-ground positions on how much and how specific the requirements should be for graduation. Two seemingly conflicting values are involved when determining requirements: (a) the need to give students the opportunity to make decisions of importance to themselves and (b) the need to provide students with quality, balanced programs in citizenship education. In some situations these values are not in conflict (when students freely elect for themselves balanced social studies education programs). Where those values are in conflict, however, schools should strive to make policy decisions on graduation requirements that preserve some decision-making opportunity for students while discouraging or preventing students from selecting social studies programs that are too narrow or simply insufficient for citizens of this complex society.

Objectives that are considered important—such as understanding other cultures—should be taught in classes taken by all students.

Reaching ALL students with important content and objectives

Important objectives should be incorporated in the courses all students take. For example, if we assume that in our pluralistic society an objective like I C 10* is important for *all* students, that objective should not be reserved for an elective course in Black Studies; the objective ought to be integrated into history courses everyone will take. Such a position is consistent with Guideline 13.0 of the National Council for the Social Studies's *Curriculum Guidelines for Multiethnic Education–Position Statement* ("The multiethnic curriculum should be comprehensive in scope and sequence. . .and should be an integral part of the total school curriculum"). Similarly, if we assume it is important that all students understand the U.S. legal system, such an instructional objective should be incorporated into the social studies courses everyone will take. The burden of teaching social studies objectives of great importance should not be carried by elective courses students may choose not to take.

See Simms and Contreras (1980)

Suggestions for meeting the requirements of Section 170.11, RSMo*

What does the law require?

1. Regular courses of instruction in the Constitutions of Missouri and the United States and in American history and institutions shall be given in all public schools beginning not later than grade 7 and continuing into high school. The instruction may consist of units or entire courses and must be a definite component of the district's curriculum.
2. In order to graduate from high school, a student must satisfactorily pass tests on the provisions and principles of the Missouri and United States Constitutions and in American history and institutions during grades 9-12. Meeting this requirement should be recorded on the student's transcript.

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*"Understands the cultures, historical experiences, social realities, and existential conditions of various ethnic groups."

*See page 1 of this chapter for the text of Section 170.11 RSMo.

What is NOT required by the law?

1. The law does not require Missouri teachers to use a standardized state program or standardized tests. The types of tests are left to the discretion of local school officials.
2. The law does not require repetitious study of the Constitutions and of American history. Such instruction is *to begin* not later than grade 7 and *continue* into the high school. Ideally, there should be planned continuity so that instruction in later grades builds upon instruction in the lower grades.
3. The law does not specify how much emphasis should be given to the study of the Constitutions and to United States history and institutions in specific grade levels.
4. The law does not specify how much time must be spent in studying this content.
5. The law does not require students to pass Constitutions or history tests at the junior high level as a prerequisite for high school admission. Of course, the law does not discourage unit tests on the Constitutions at the junior high level.
6. The law does not prescribe methods of teaching. Such matters are left to the creativity and resourcefulness of local professional educators, who may use inquiry, role play, case studies, field trips and simulation approaches, as well as approaches that are more didactic.

How should local districts implement the law concerning the study of the Constitutions?

This part of the curriculum should be developed in similar ways to those used in developing other parts of the curriculum. That is:

1. Educators should have clearly in mind why they are teaching this topic. They could do so by addressing themselves to these questions: Why is it important for citizens of this nation and state to have an understanding of the Constitutions of the United States and Missouri? What consequences would be likely to follow public ignorance of those Constitutions?
2. They should consider what specific topics should be dealt with in students' study of the Constitutions. Here are some topics that might be used. Local districts could consider this list and modify and add to it:
   - Why have a Constitution?
   - How is this government organized?
   - What powers does it have?
   - What services does it provide?
   - What limits are placed on its powers?
   - What rights for citizens does this Constitution guarantee?
   - How may this government be changed?
   - How may it shape social change?
   - How may it help resolve disputes?
   - How can citizens influence it and its decision makers?
   - How are laws made?
   - In what ways are United States and Missouri Constitutions similar to and different from each other?
   - How important is the specific wording of the Constitution? (How can minor changes in wording have major ramifications?)
   - How is U.S. and Missouri government and organization different from that in other counties, such as Canada, Great Britain, France, and others?
   - How adequate are these Constitutions for the late twentieth and the twenty-first centuries?
   -
   -

3. They should consider what resources may be used to teach about the Constitutions.
   - It is easy to find copies of the United States Constitution. The American Bar Association's *Bibliography of Law Related Curriculum Materials (Annotated)* lists excellent resources for teachers and students.
   - Missouri Constitutions in single copies may be obtained from the Office of the Missouri Secretary of State. Constitution texts are produced by these publishers, and perhaps others: Bawden Brothers, (Davenport, Ia.) Lucas Brothers, (Columbia, Mo.) State Publishing Company, (St. Louis, Mo.) and Webster Division of McGraw-Hill (St. Louis, Mo.). Newspapers may be used as resources to help students understand relationships between the Constitutions and daily events.
4. They should consider what objectives should be emphasized. Which of the objectives should everyone master?
   - Chapter V of this guide may be consulted. Another resource is *The Rights and Responsibilities of Citizenship in a Free Society, A Law-Oriented Curriculum Guide for Grades K-12*, developed by The Missouri Bar and The Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education.
5. They should consider in what grades and courses they will teach specific topics and objectives related to the Constitutions. Local districts may consider these questions:
   - Shall we teach the Constitutions in connection with American history courses, with government or civics courses, and/or with other courses?
   - Shall we teach the Constitutions separately or together?
   - Which topics and objectives will we emphasize in primary grades, in middle school grades, and in high school grades?
   - Do our plans help us avoid undesirable repetition of content?
   - Do our plans seem likely to help students learn what they should learn about the Constitutions at grade levels where the content will interest them?
6. They should consider what activities and evaluation items should be used in conjunction with the objectives. They should strive to have intriguing, stimulating, challenging activities. The evaluation items should relate directly to the objectives and activities.
   - Chapters VII and IX of this guide may have some useful ideas.
   - The test or tests on the Constitutions that students must pass to graduate should attempt to assess what the district considers to be basic knowledge and competencies everyone should have regarding the constitutions. Ideally, the test's objectives should be clear to everyone, especially the students. Of course, many students should not only pass the test but demonstrate more than minimum proficiency with this content.

Conclusions

The suggestions listed above are similar to those that ought to be considered when planning any unit in social studies. This is proper, since the law and its interpretations by the Department of Elementary and Secondary Education allow local educators to develop their own units or courses and tests.

A local educator may feel less enthusiasm teaching about the Constitutions than about other subject matter since he may believe that he teaches about the Constitutions only because the law says he must do so. If so, he has forgotten that if no law existed to require teaching about the Constitutions, Missouri social studies educators themselves would insist on teaching about them because of their importance in protecting human rights and in setting up a framework whereby people can strive to control the forces of social change and continuity. To teach about the Constitutions is a privilege and challenge Missouri social studies teachers should welcome.

A sample K-6 scope and sequence*

Introduction

Social studies education in Parkway is designed to support three major purposes: the enhancement of human dignity, defined as access to the rights and responsibilities associated with membership in a culture; the use of rational processes, defined as systematic efforts to generate, validate, or apply knowledge; the development of citizenship abilities, defined as the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary for informed citizen participation.

The kindergarten through grade six social studies program provides a strong base for the secondary program. The selection and organization of subject matter from history, the social sciences, and humanities based on the presentation of topics are close to the experience of young children with the introduction of more abstract content as children progress through the grades. Children in primary grades learn about themselves, others, groups, cities, and communities. In the intermediate grades topics include cultures, states, nations, United States history, and areas of the world. The secondary program emphasizes world studies, American studies, and the social sciences as the basis for both required and elective courses.

At each grade within the kindergarten through 12 scope and sequence the following components of the program are included:

a. **Content Topics** which focus study and serve as the basis for knowledge in social studies content and as a context for the practice of social skills;
b. **Citizenship/Law Related-American Studies** which provide for the basic knowledge about our American heritage, its constitutional/legal basis, and the behaviors implicit in responsible citizenship;
c. **Economics** which involves nations' answers to the questions of what will be produced, how production will be accomplished, and how goods and services will be distributed;
d. **Geography** which treats the description and location of features, regions, and places on earth and the distribution of life on earth;
e. **Global Studies/Current World Events** which lead to a knowledge of the world and its peoples in terms of historical perspective as well as current importances;
f. **Career Awareness** which deals with various career possibilities and the talents, interests, abilities, and plans involved in their realization;
g. **Chronology** which develops a time sense that includes the ability to sequence and the development of perspective, perception, and projection; and
h. **Written/Oral/Social Communication** which is based on the practice of listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills in the content area of social studies where these basic skills can be practiced in the context which most closely resembles that of the adult citizen.

A given component described above may be more heavily stressed at one grade level than another. However, all are included in the kindergarten through twelve social studies program. Instruction includes whole class activities, small group work, individual projects, field experiences, research reports, and presentations. The time allotted for instruction increases from two to three hours per week in primary grades, to three to four hours per week in intermediate grades, to five hours per week for secondary students.

The kindergarten through twelve social studies program derives its power from providing students with the opportunity to participate in a planned, cumulative program of deliberate instruction designed to develop knowledgeable and competent American and world citizens.

*This K-6 scope and sequence (pp. 72-79) was developed in 1979 by Parkway School District, and is reproduced here, with permission, as an example of one district's approach to curriculum organization. The Department of Education is not endorsing it or the materials described in it. Local districts are encouraged to make their own scope and sequence decisions.

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Kindergarten

Basic Material: Study Print Programs
Schools, Families, and Neighborhoods (Addison-Wesley)
The Social Sciences: Concepts and Values, Yellow Ed. (Harcourt Brace Jovanovich)
Families Around the World (Silver Burdett)

Content Topics

- Gain introductory knowledge about self, family, school, neighborhood, America, and other cultures
- Recognize the family as a group whose members have various roles
- Recognize his/her class in school as a group to which he/she belongs
- Recognize the neighborhood as the area in which he/she lives
- Recognize Americans as the national group to which he/she belongs
- Recognize other cultures of the world and their similarities to and differences from American culture

Citizenship/Law Related - American Studies

- Begin to respect the rights and opinions of others
- Begin to follow simple directions
- Take part in making simple rules
- Begin to recognize self as a member of the group
- Begin to recognize the need for respect and cooperation in class activities
- Develop an awareness of patriotic symbols and holidays

Economics

- Gain knowledge about the need to choose when something is scarce

Geography

- Recognize maps and globes as having to do with location
- Use directional/locational words (e.g., up, down, right, left, north, south, east, west, near, far, over, front, back)
- Locate places within the school

Global Studies/Current World Events

- Recognize some persons and events of current or historical significance

Career Awareness

- Identify various occupations

Chronology

- Begin to develop time sense (e.g. long ago, in your parents' time)
- Use words related to time (e.g. before, now, later, spring, summer, fall, winter, yesterday, tomorrow, first, second)
- Arrange a few events or ideas in sequence

Written/Oral/Social Communication

- Listen and observe attentively
- Speak in sentences
- Develop a readiness for content reading
  - Discuss ideas from social studies study prints (i.e. "picture reading")
  - Compose language experience stories based on social studies topics and/or social studies picture prints
  - Develop a vocabulary associated with social studies content through "picture reading" and language experience stories about social studies topics
  - Exhibit curiosity about himself/herself and the world

Grade 1

Basic Material: *Discovering Others* (McGraw-Hill)

Content Topics

- Gain knowledge of himself/herself as an individual (e.g. interests, abilities, preferences)
- Gain knowledge of the relationship of self to persons of various ages
- Gain knowledge of his/her position in the family, school, and community
- Gain knowledge of communities throughout the United States—especially the nation's capital.
- Recognize and use textual vocabulary (e.g. self, group, family, community, nation's capital).

Citizenship/Law Related - American Studies

- Participate in creating an environment that facilitates learning
- Respect the rights and opinions of others
- Recognize the need to keep promises (e.g. promises about matters of safety)
- Recognize the need for rules (e.g. rules for talking and listening in a group)
- Take part in making and following rules
- Recognize the relationship of rules to efforts at fairness
- Follow simple directions in carrying out work
- Work well individually and with others
- Recognize contributions of Indians, pioneers, and other cultures to America

Economics

- Recognize that because there are limited resources people must make choices
- Recognize that community workers provide goods and services
- Use economic terms (e.g. labor, resources, income, money, goods, services, employment)

Geography

- Recognize maps and globes as representations of the earth
- Name and recognize north, south, east, west, as cardinal directions
- Read simple maps and globes (especially model and picture representations of school, neighborhood, and community)
- Make simple "map" of the classroom
- Locate home on a map and city on a globe

Global Studies/Current World Events

- Recognize some persons and events of current and/or historical significance (e.g. President of the United States)

Career Awareness

- Identify various occupations
- Recognize that choices, hopes, beliefs, and ability are factors in careers

Chronology

- Continue to develop time sense (e.g. changes associated with the life cycle)
- Recall past experiences and project some future experiences
- Use words and tools related to time (e.g. calendar, clock, seconds, minutes, years, past, present, future)
- Arrange a few events and ideas in sequence
- Recognize change in time by comparing old and modern pictures

Written/Oral/Social Communication

- Listen and observe attentively
- Speak in sentences and give sentence answers to questions
- Read simple graphs, charts, tables
- Continue to develop the readiness for content reading
  - Discuss ideas from pictures in social studies text which are arranged specifically to develop content vocabulary (i.e. "picture reading")
  - Read simple expository sentences from the textbook
  - Write sentence answers to social studies questions
  - Write brief stories about social studies topics
  - Exhibit curiosity about himself/herself and the world

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Grade 2

Basic Material: *Learning About People* (McGraw-Hill)

Content Topics

- Gain knowledge about human behavior (e.g. individual and group behavior)
- Gain knowledge of how people learn (e.g. copying, modeling)
- Gain knowledge of how people communicate (e.g. mediums, sender, receiver, message)
- Gain knowledge about how people make decisions (e.g. problems, choices, results)
- Recognize and use textual vocabulary (e.g. behavior, choice, communication, social studies, facts)

Citizenship/Law Related - American Studies

- Participate in creating an environment that facilitates learning
- Respect rights and opinions of others
- Recognize what is appropriate behavior in various settings and at various ages
- Recognize that decisions are sometimes made by persons in authority
- Recognize the characteristics of behavior that contribute to classwork and group work
- Accept the roles of leader and of follower
- Accept responsibility
- Recognize the nature of early American communities and the contribution of some famous American patriots (e.g., Washington, Lincoln)

Economics

- Recognize that choices must be made because wants and needs are greater than resources
- Use economic terms (e.g. money, needs, choices, products, goods, services, competition, opportunity, cost)

Geography

- Recognize maps and globes as representations of the earth
- Identify places on a map and globe (e.g. neighborhood, state, nation)
- Recognize cardinal directions
- Make simple maps
- Recognize maps as a medium of communication

Global Studies/Current World Events

- Recognize persons, places, and events of current and historical significance

Career Awareness

- Recognize that various types of neighborhoods provide different job opportunities
- Recognize relationships among choices, hopes, beliefs, ability, and career choice

Chronology

- Continue to develop time sense
- Use words related to time (e.g. decade, century, past, present, future, before, after, meanwhile, since)
- Recognize that behavior changes as persons mature
- Recall facts and events from the past and can project some future events (e.g. "what will happen?")
- Arrange some ideas and events in sequence

Written/Oral/Social Communication

- Listen and observe attentively (e.g. hear what is said by others; see discrepancies and patterns in pictures)
- Speak in sentences and give sentence answers to questions
- Continue developing skills for content reading and writing
  Discuss ideas from pictures in social studies texts which are arranged specifically to develop content vocabulary (i.e. "picture reading")
- Write sentence answers to social studies questions (e.g. "who" and "what")
- Write briefly about social studies topics, applying the skills of printing, spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and arrangement on the page
- Study a topic by answering questions, gathering facts, making and checking guesses
- Organize and present facts gathered in the form of charts and graphs
- Exhibit curiosity about himself/herself and the world

Grade 3

Basic Material: *Exploring Communities* (McGraw-Hill)

Content Topics

- Gain knowledge of the meaning of "community" (e.g. food, shelter, clothing)
- Gain knowledge of Burlington, North Carolina, past and present—as an example of an established eastern community (e.g. Indians, settlers, growth)
- Gain knowledge of Kansas City, Missouri, past and present—as an example of a mid-western community (e.g. trading posts, western trails, industry)
- Gain knowledge of Los Angeles past and present—as an example of the southwestern United States (e.g. Indians, Mexicans, ranching, growth)
- Gain knowledge of Canada—as an example of a nation which shares this continent (with a special emphasis on Montreal's city planning and future focus).

Citizenship/Law Related - American Studies

- Participate in creating an environment that facilitates learning
- Respect the rights and opinions of others
- Accept responsibility
- Recognize law as one way to attempt to affect the future
- Begin to recognize U.S. states, capitals, and major cities
- Recognize that city government meets needs that cannot be met by individuals
- Identify the duties of mayor, commissioner, and city council
- Recognize that persons and groups develop a system of laws and rules for cooperative living

Economics

- Recognize that the community provides goods and services for residents
- Recognize that individuals and communities make decisions
- Recognize that factors in the growth of cities are natural environment, resources, and the kinds of businesses attracted
- Use economic terms (e.g. trade, goods, services, consumers, producers, cost, taxes)

Geography

- Recognize that maps and globes indicate both natural and man-made features
- Recognize oceans, continents, and geographic areas of the U.S.
- Apply cardinal directions in locating and use simple grid
- Compute distance on a map using scale
- Recognize several types of maps (e.g. aerial, land-use, road map)
- Recognize some map symbols and their meaning, and apply them in map reading
- Recognize that cities are located where transportation, services, and work can be found

Global Studies/Current World Events

- Recognize persons, places, and events of historical and current significance, especially those relevant to famous American monuments and their locations (e.g. St. Louis Arch, Washington Monument)

Career Awareness

- Identify interest groups, services, and institutions within a city and their related careers
- Recognize the relationship of talent, interest, and ability to career choice

Chronology

- Continue to develop time sense (e.g. past, present, future)
- Begin to recognize some major events as points of orientation in time
- Sequences a few events and ideas, interprets information, and constructs a simple time line

Written/Oral/Social Communication

- Listen and observe attentively
- Write sentence answers to social studies questions (e.g. "when" and "where")
- Read and construct simple charts, tables, graphs, maps, and time lines
- Use table of contents, index, glossary
- Recognize the function of words such as "why," "because," "but," "or," and "if."
- Write brief factual accounts of social studies topics
- Exhibit curiosity about himself/herself and the world

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Grade 4

Basic Material: *Studying Cultures* (McGraw-Hill)
Show Me Missouri (Unified College Press)
Missouri Then and Now (Steck Vaughn)

Content Topics

- Gain knowledge of the geographical, historical, political, economic, and cultural significance of the State of Missouri and the local areas (e.g. Native Americans, early settlement, St. Louis, European Influence, Civil War, famous Missourians)
- Gain knowledge of the Tasadays of Mindanao in the Philippines—a stone-age culture of today (e.g. environment, food, shelter, language, family, learning, impact of other cultures)
- Gain knowledge of the Mossi culture of the Upper Volta, Africa—a people whose traditional life style is being influenced by technology (e.g. environment, food, shelter, homes, status, urbanization)
- Gain knowledge of the Aymara of Bolivia, South America—a people whose traditional way of life was changed through conquest (e.g. Incas, Spaniards, independence, present, future)
- Gain knowledge of the Uzbeks of the Soviet Union, Eurasia—a people whose traditional way of life is gone in the face of technology and urbanization (e.g. environment, government, present, and future)

Citizenship/Law Related - American Studies

- Participate in creating an environment that facilitates learning
- Respect the rights and opinions of others
- Accept responsibility
- Gain knowledge of Missouri state government
- Continue the study of states and capitals
- Gain knowledge of government in four cultures (e.g. tribal, early urban, imposed power, government in the U.S.S.R.)

Economics

- Recognize that states in our country and cultures of the world develop economic emphases that reflect the geography and national resources, and make choices related to cost
- Recognize that various cultures are in different stages of development

Geography

- Use grid in locating and recognize the relationship of grid to the introduction of the study of hemispheres, longitude and latitude, and time zones
- Recognize the relationship of position of this earth to seasons
- Recognize the relationship of location on the earth to environment in four parts of the world (Philippines, Africa, South America, Eurasia)
- Apply geographic terms (e.g. key, legends, and symbols)

Global Studies/Current World Events

- Recognize persons, places, and events of historical and current significance (especially those related to famous monuments, areas in Missouri, and famous Missourians)

Career Awareness

- Recognize the relationship of talent, interests, and abilities to careers
- Recognize that planning is a part of career choice
- Begin to locate information about various careers
- Recognize effect of culture, environment, and resources on career opportunity

Chronology

- Sequence several events on a time line (e.g. especially events related to Missouri history and the history of four cultures of the world)

Written/Oral/Social Communication

- Read expository materials in texts and other references (e.g. dictionary, encyclopedias), being assisted to his/her level of comprehension
- Read and construct tables, graphs, charts, maps, cartoons, and time lines
- Recognize the function of such words as "since," "thus," and "therefore"
- Write sentence answers (e.g. "how", "why"), paraphrases, reports and essays
- Exhibit curiosity about himself/herself and the world

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Grade 5

Basic Material: *Understanding the United States* (McGraw-Hill)

Content Topics

- Gain knowledge of the geographical, historical, political, economic and cultural significance of the United States
- Recognize the historical role of Native Americans, European explorers, and colonizers with emphasis on the Amish whose traditions stem from colonial times
- Recognize events leading to the American Revolution, founding of the government, westward expansion (Mexican Americans today), Civil War, settlement of the Great Plains (Navahos today)
- Recognize the role of the United States as a world power, current issues and future challenge

Citizenship/Law Related - American Studies

- Participate in creating an environment that facilitates learning
- Respect the rights and opinions of others
- Accept responsibility
- Gain knowledge of the U.S. political system of representative democracy (e.g. House of Burgesses, Articles of Confederation, Constitution, Bill of Rights)
- Recognize the need for law, the process of law-making, and the application of constitutional law and change in specific instances (e.g. adding amendments 13, 14, 15 at the time of the Civil War)

Economics

- Gain knowledge of the U.S. market economy (e.g. goods, services, production, distribution)
- Recognize the interaction among supply, demand, money, prices, resources, and trade

Geography

- Read several types of maps (e.g. physical, political, population, product, rainfall, etc.)
- Apply longitude and latitude in locating on a map and globe
- Recognize the effects of elevation, rotation, and revolution
- Recognize the natural environment of the geographic regions of the United States as well as Canada and Mexico

Global Studies/Current World Events

- Recognize persons, places, and events of historical and current significance (especially those related to famous monuments and famous U.S. citizens)

Career Awareness

- Recognize the relationship among personal interests, aptitudes, and possible careers
- Continue to locate information about careers
- Recognize the relationship of career choice to his/her culture group

Chronology

- Sequence several events on a time line—especially those relevant to U.S. history

Written/Oral/Social Communication

- Read historical documents, exposition, and narrative in texts and other references
- Write paraphrases of expository materials
- Read and construct tables, graphs, charts, cartoons, maps, and time lines
- Reapply decision model (e.g. problems, alternatives, choices)
- Write "if-then" and "what-if" sentences (e.g. understands and can make inferences)
- Write expository reports and book reports
- Locate and recognize the function of the sections of a newspaper
- Exhibits curiosity about himself/herself and the world

Grade 6

Basic Material: *Investigating Societies* (McGraw-Hill)

Content Topics

- Gain knowledge of South America (underdeveloped and developed economies) and especially of Brazil's history as an example of economic growth occurring in many South American countries (e.g. early history, colonization, independence, economic growth, G.N.P., present and future)
- Gain knowledge of Africa (geography and colonial history) and specifically Nigeria as an example of the rapid change and diversity typical in many African countries (e.g. amount and rate of change, three regions and their cultural groups, British rule, independence, national unity, present and future)
- Gain knowledge of China geography, history, and government (e.g. dynastic period, Middle Kingdom, European involvement, Civil War, present, future)
- Gain knowledge of Europe (geography and culture) and specifically the United Kingdom as an example of a highly industrialized nation with close historical and cultural ties to the United States

Citizenship/Law Related - American Studies

- Participate in creating an atmosphere that facilitates learning
- Respect the rights and opinions of others
- Accept responsibility
- Gain knowledge of governments (e.g. comparative political systems)
- Recognize the application of law to world order (e.g. treaties, pacts, agreements, world organizations)
- Survey the governments of four nations (e.g. China, Nigeria, Brazil, United Kingdom)

Economics

- Gain knowledge that unlimited wants and needs exist in a world of limited resources
- Recognize that the problem of limited resources causes nations to face the problem of scarcity
- Recognize that different approaches to the problem of scarcity lead cultures to derive different economic systems (e.g. comparative economics, developed and underdeveloped economies)

Geography

- Use specialized maps (e.g. topographical, political, demographic, and historical)
- Apply scale, elevation, latitude and longitude to the study of day, night, weather climate, seasons, and time zones
- Recognize map distortion and types of map projections
- Recognize the influence of geography in four areas of the world (e.g. China, Africa, South America, and Europe)

Global Studies/Current World Events

- Recognize persons, places, and events of historical and current significance (especially those related to areas of the world)

Career Awareness

- Recognize the relationship among personal interests, aptitudes, and possible careers
- Continue to locate information on various careers
- Compare career opportunities in his/her own society to that in other societies

Chronology

- Sequence events relevant to one area or several areas of the world on a time line

Written/Oral/Social Communication

- Read narratives, documents, case studies, and exposition in texts and other references (e.g. dictionaries, encyclopedias, atlases)
- Read fiction associated with cultures of the world
- Write paraphrases of expository materials
- Write essay answers of one or more paragraphs
- Read and construct tables, graphs, charts, cartoons, maps, and time lines
- Write factual reports in his/her own words combining information from several sources
- Recognize writer's purpose and/or bias (e.g. recognize assumptions and make inferences)
- Exhibit curiosity about himself/herself and the world

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Chapter VII
Activities for Social Studies

The quality of a social studies program depends upon many mutually supportive factors: the program's rationale, the objectives, the sequence of courses, the instructional activities and interactions, and the evaluation strategies. This chapter, which is concerned with one of those factors, instructional activities, addresses itself to these questions:

1. What are characteristics of quality social studies activities?
2. What resources may teachers use to find ideas on instructional activities for social studies?
3. What do specific, quality activities look like for different levels?

Since volumes may be written on the above three questions, this chapter can only provide some provocative questions and concrete examples, and point the way to other resources.

Characteristics of quality social studies activities

The National Council for the Social Studies in its revised "Curriculum Guidelines" indicated in Guideline 5 what activities should be like in social studies programs:

5.0 Learning Activities Should Engage the Student Directly and Actively in the Learning Process.

5.1 Students should have a wide and rich range of learning activities appropriate to the objectives of their social studies program.

5.2 Activities should include formulating hypotheses and testing them by gathering and analyzing data.

5.3 Activities should include using knowledge, examining values, communicating with others, and making decisions about social and civic affairs.

5.4 Students should be encouraged to become active participants in activities within their own communities.

5.5 Learning activities should be sufficiently varied and flexible to appeal to many kinds of students.

5.6 Activities should contribute to the students' perception of teachers as fellow inquirers.

5.7 Activities must be carried on in a climate which supports students' self-respect and opens opportunities to all.

5.8 Activities should stimulate students to investigate and to respond to the human condition in the contemporary world.

5.9 Activities which examine values, attitudes, and beliefs should be undertaken in an environment that respects each student's rights to privacy.

This document may be found in Social Education, April, 1979, which was published by the National Council for the Social Studies, whose address is listed below on page 181.

☑ **Idea for staff development:** *Have faculty share ideas on activities that exemplify these guidelines.*

In view of the fact that some students have learning disabilities and that all students have strengths and weaknesses in how they learn, it is essential that learning activities be varied and make us of the wide range of student strengths.

Resources for instructional activities

Some suggestions for getting up-to-date material on ideas and activities in social studies are:

Addresses of organizations cited in this section of this chapter may be found in the Appendix (see p. 181).

1. *Social studies teachers of all levels or school buildings could join the National Council for the Social Studies to get access to NCSS publications,* many of which include suggestions for activities for both elementary and secondary schools. The NCSS journal *Social Education* has as regular features the "Classroom Teacher's 'Idea' Notebook," "Sources and Resources," and "Document of the Month." All NCSS members receive *Social Education* and two special bulletins each year. Comprehensive members also receive additional items, including the *How to Do It Series* of pamphlets.
2. *Draw upon the resources of the Social Science Education Consortium.* SSEC, funded to serve as a clearinghouse for social studies education, operates the ERIC information retrieval system for social studies, produces bibliographies for specific areas, and publishes books which include social studies activities. Teachers may write SSEC to be placed on the mailing list for *Keeping Up, The News Bulletin of the Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education. Keeping Up* has had issues devoted to such topics as "Looking at International Education," "Reading in the Social Studies," "Exploring Values Education," "Teaching About Aging," "Local History," and "Staff Development." Those issues have included interviews of experts in those areas, book reviews, learning activities and lists of ERIC documents.

   SSEC has also produced short annotated bibliographies and reference sheets in such areas as career education, economics and geography, environmental education, ethnic studies/multicultural education, future studies, and humanities.

   SSEC has produced and updates annually the *Social Studies Materials and Resources Data Book.* The annual updates include analyses of textbooks, supplementary materials, games and simulations, and teacher resource materials. The teacher resource materials listed must include a significant amount of student handouts or materials to be listed in the *Data Book.*

   Finally, each year SSEC produces books with all sorts of ideas of interest to social studies teachers. Examples of those books produced in 1978 and 1979 are *Selected Social Studies Skills: 88 Reinforcement Lessons for Secondary Students; What Can Children Learn in Geography? A Review of Research; Teaching About Social Issues in American History: Four Demonstration Lessons; and Global Issues: Activities and Resources for the High School Teacher.* To find out about the latest SSEC publications write SSEC for a publications list.
3. *Join the state's social studies organizations.* Their meetings and newsletters provide useful information on social studies instructional activities. The two state groups open to all teachers are the Missouri Council for the Social Studies and the Social Studies Department of the Missouri State Teachers Association. Information about how to join both organizations may be obtained from the social studies specialist of the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education or directly from the organizations.
4. *Obtain publications produced by the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education that relate to social studies.* Two such publications are: *Activity Book for the Missouri Basic Essential Skills Test: Government/Economics Objectives* (available from Missouri Testing and Evaluation Service, University of Missouri-Columbia, 408 Hitt Street, Columbia, MO 65211—write for order form) and *The Rights*

and Responsibilities of Citizenship in a Free Society, A Law-Oriented Curriculum Guide for Grades K-12 (available from the Missouri Bar; $7.50 with looseleaf binder, $6.00 without binder.) Both books include many activities relevant to social studies.

5. *Get on mailing lists of Missouri organizations that provide newsletters relevant to social studies.* Two such groups include: The Missouri Bar, which produces a newsletter on law-related education for teachers, and the Missouri Council on Economic Education, which produces a newsletter on economic education for Missouri elementary and secondary teachers. *The Missouri Bar and the Missouri Council on Economic Education can also help local school districts obtain resources for teaching in law-related and economic education respectively.*
6. *Social studies teachers with specialized interests can obtain publications lists from organizations that specialize in their areas of interest.* To find out which organizations may help you, write the Social Science Education Consortium, or use the list of organizations that may be found in the appendix to this guide (see 181).
7. *Look at teachers' guides to various social studies textbooks.* Some of them suggest excellent strategies for accomplishing objectives like those in chapter V of this guide.
8. *Finally, build your own professional library of books* for social studies instruction. To find good resource books, use procedures like those above. An excellent book on this subject is *Guide to Reading for Social Studies Teachers*, edited in 1973 by Jonathan C. McLendon, Bulletin 46 of the National Council for the Social Studies (cost: $3.75). The book is divided into four parts: "The Social Sciences," "Societal Problems and Issues," "Curriculum, Methods, Media," and "Perspectives of Human Development." Each part is further subdivided into more specific topics, and in each chapter the author, a specialist in the field, describes the books he or she considers to be the best references. Part III, "Curriculum, Methods, Media," includes these chapters useful for teaching strategies: "General Instruction and Resources," "Elementary Schools' Teaching and Learning," and "Secondary Schools' Teaching and Learning." Since *Guide to Reading for Social Studies Teachers* was published in 1973, it is important to use other sources mentioned to find reviews of more current books.

Types of activities for students of different ages

Children change as they get older. Consequently, activities that may be used productively with one age level may be inappropriate for another age level. In the pages that follow, characteristics of children and recommendations for activities are described for these age levels: *preschool-primary* (prekindergarten through grades 3 or 4), *middle school* (grades 4 or 5 through grade 8), and *high school* (grades 9 through 12).

Obviously, any way of grouping children by ages is likely to suggest more order than really exists, since the correlation between age and maturity is far from perfect.

Preschool-primary children (prekindergarten through grades 3 or 4)

Even before children enter kindergarten, they are already involved in "the great adventure of trying to make cognitive sense of the experience of being human in the world." They wonder, "What's it [human life] all about? [Egan, 1979, p. 134]." They are intrigued by struggles between individuals, peoples, and forces of nature, which they conceptualize using polar concepts like good/evil, love/hate, fear/security, big/little, brave/cowardly, and industrious/lazy. Such a view of the world helps account for their love of such stories as *The Little Engine that Could, Horton Hatches an Egg,* and *Peter and the Wolf.*

For a discussion of child development from infancy through age six, see Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, Focus on Early Childhood Education. (1974)

Children of these ages become more competent in some important ways:

- They are learning to view events from the perspective of other people.
- They are learning to cooperate with other people and to follow rules.
- They are learning to adjust to and cope with important authority figures *outside the home* context (teachers, principal, school secretary, school custodian, police officer).
- They are learning to compare themselves to other people along many dimensions (size, strength, "smartness," race, sex).
- They are learning about their own behavior and emotions, how they are similar to those of other children; they also learn about causes and consequences of various behaviors and emotions.
- They are learning basic skills of how to read, how to write, how to listen, how to speak, and how to perform arithmetic operations.
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Other competencies may be listed.

At these ages they develop understandings and competencies through stories, concrete experiences, and interactions with others. Their learning, especially for boys, should usually be active and in small doses. These years offer an excellent opportunity to help students feel good about themselves and develop a sense of social participation through helping others and carrying out tasks. These are also excellent years to help students learn about their local community by exploring it and to discover and modify patterns of behavior in their relationships with others.

Children of these ages, like children of other ages, vary considerably in their personalities, interests, skills, attention spans, and feelings about themselves and others. Examples of activities that may be used with these children can be found on Table V.

Table V
Sample Activities for Primary Grades

Activity Number and Name	Page
1. Stories about Heroic Struggles	91
2. Understanding Causes and Consequences of Human Behavior	91
3. Map Making for Young Students	92
6. Developing Concepts	95
9. Study with Purpose	98
10. Orienting Students to Textbooks	100
11. Vocabulary Development Strategies	101
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17. Museums	113
18. Historical Documents	115
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23. Student Newspapers	123
24. The All-Purpose Quiz Board	123
25. Creating Audiovisual Productions	124
32. Productive Work in the Classroom	134
33. Creating a Classroom or School Constitution	134
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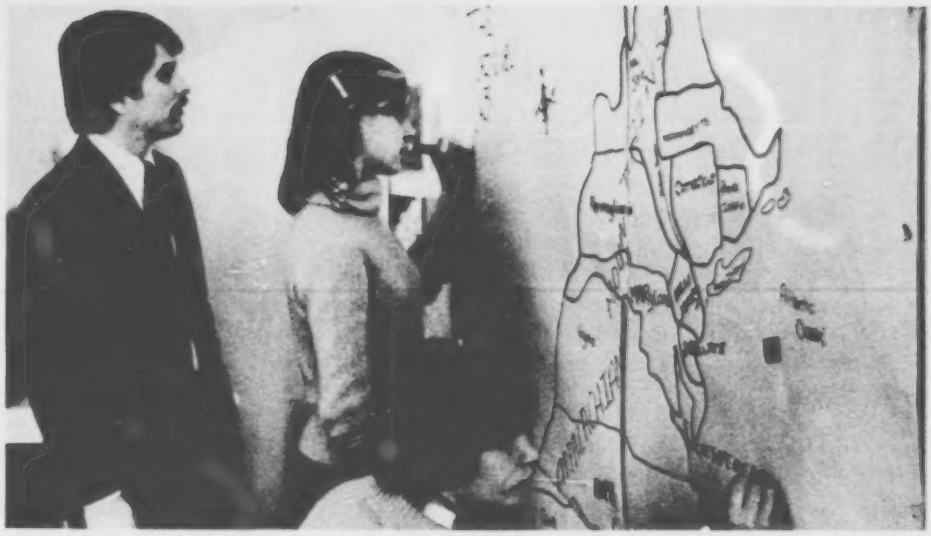
Middle school children (grades 4 or 5 through 8)

The middle school years are a time of dramatic change for a youngster physically, socially, emotionally, and intellectually. As if it were not enough struggle for an individual to undergo such personal upheaval, it is all complicated because one's peers are advancing at different rates. Hence interpersonal relationships are volatile. Activities which soothe the transitions of so many changes surely improve the learning environment.

Activities planned for middle school students should consider compensating for individual differences. Many of these young people tend to be very sensitive, egocentric, restless, and anxious. Recognizing these traits will aid the teacher in choosing activities which will lead to a relaxed learning atmosphere where all the students can be comfortable at a task.

The primary point the middle school teacher needs to keep in mind is that these students' minds are in the process of changing from the intellectual security afforded from learning and memorizing concrete facts to thinking, conceptualizing, and exploring. Some students take to thinking and exploring quickly, whereas others seem to hate it. These mental growth spurts are difficult to perceive and monitor. Therefore, activities for middle school students should be geared as if half of the class thinks only in "concrete" terms, whereas the other half thinks in terms of curiosity, exploration, and conceptualization.

It is important that the teacher not categorize individual students into particular intellectual roles permanently because students' intellectual powers change sporadically during these years. This same changeability makes it possible for a teacher to use very simplistic games and activities successfully at the beginning of the year and progress to more complicated ones at the end. A cautionary note: the teacher must have activities well prepared and in hand because a loss of faith in teacher leadership may frustrate middle school students. It is a good idea to keep on hand a varied bag of tricks for drill or games which the class can move into with ease for use after a study-lecture period.



Students in Parkway District's eighth grade unified studies class work on a map of the original thirteen colonies.

Associated with their restlessness, some middle-school students suffer from chronic fatigue. Such students often enjoy relaxing exercises like map work or observing illustrations using slide projectors, overhead projectors, or felt boards. Such activities seem to afford them the luxury of slipping back into the security of elementary nap or art time.

All in all, the middle school aged child is a delightful challenge.

The changes taking place in these children include:

- Spurts in physical growth are taking place in the children, but at varied times and rates. Those spurts affect energy levels and children's feelings toward themselves.
- The children are becoming more skilled, academically and socially. Not only are their communication skills improving, their skills as members of groups are improving. They can also understand the past, present, and future better, as well as spatial relationships on maps.
- The children, at varying rates, are becoming more responsible, dependable, and reasonable.
- The children's friendship patterns are changing. For the first time some close one-to-one friendships emerge among members of the same sex. Girls tend to have one or two very close friends. Boys are more likely to belong to larger friendship groupings.
- The children depend less upon adult standards; they are more concerned with achieving their own goals and with being accepted by their age-mates.
- The children are interested in arguing over rules and fairness in games. Their concepts of fairness are more sophisticated than is the case with younger children. For example, they are more likely to adjust rules in a game to give younger children a more even chance to win.
- The children are developing definite interests, which may include team sports, pets, hobbies, collections, TV, movies, reading about specific topics, and activities to earn money.

These changes in the children have definite implications for social studies activities, since many of those changes relate positively to qualities of responsible, effective citizens cited in Chapter IV. In particular, the activities should build upon and extend these *skills:*

- Participating in group activities.
- Communicating with a variety of people.
- Reading, writing, and map study.

- Critical thinking.
- Recognizing patterns in human behavior.
- Role playing in dramatic presentations and simulations.
- Artistic skills.
-

The activities should also build upon and extend these *interests:*

- Interest in increased responsibility.
- Interest in rule making and in the concept of fairness.
- Interest in the welfare of others.
- Interest in other times and places, other cultures.
- Interests in a variety of other matters where different students have different interests.
-

Table VI
Sample Activities for Middle School Grades
(Also Junior High)

Activity Number and Name	Page
1. Stories about Heroic Struggles	91
2. Understanding Causes and Consequences of Human Behavior	91
3. Map Making for Young Students	92
4. Drawing Maps	93
5. Map Reading	94
6. Developing Concepts	95
7. Comic Strips	97
9. Study with Purpose	98
10. Orienting Students to Textbooks	100
11. Vocabulary Development Strategies	101
12. Mapping and Charting Reading Assignments	103
13. Going Beyond One Textbook	107
14. Dealing with Differences among Students	109
15. Television	110
16. Scavenger Hunts in the Library	112
17. Museums	113
18. Historical Documents	115
19. Using Newspapers as a Springboard to the Globe	117
20. Exploring the Community	119
21. Study of Local Political Issues	119
23. Student Newspapers	123
24. The All-Purpose Quiz Board	123
25. Creating Audiovisual Productions	124
26. Learning Social Studies by Writing	125
27. Oral History	128
28. Collecting Data, Graphing It, and Drawing Inferences	129
29. Statistics as Springboards for Thinking	129
30. Activities Related to Change	131
31. What Future?	132
32. Productive Work in the Classroom	134
33. Creating a Classroom or School Constitution	134
34. Simulation Activities	135
35. Open-Ended Questions in History	135
36. Decision-Making Activities	137
37. Philosophizing about My Teaching	140

Senior high students in Parkway District do graphs on the board to compare information easier.

High School Students (Grades 9-12)

High school students vary greatly as a group in many ways (their skills, their interest in school and learning, their physical maturity, and their attitudes and goals). The variations are so great that some students love the challenge of some activities that other students will find frustratingly difficult.

Young people of these ages are very much in the process of moving to adulthood. Here is a sample of the changes and new experiences that occur during these years:

- They develop friendships and increased capacity to empathize with others.
- They mature physically.
- Many get part-time jobs.
- They have many decisions to make about what school experiences they will receive; some even choose to leave school before graduation.
- They may drive cars and motorcycles on public streets.
- They have access to tobacco, alcohol, and other drugs and may be subject to peer pressure to use them.
- Talents blossom in any of a variety of areas (sports, music, drama, academic areas, vocational skills, leadership).
- They are groping with the question, "What do I plan to do with my life?" as they ponder their futures.
- They may vote in public elections.
- They may get married.
-

There is nothing trivial about the above changes or opportunities. Each relates to a trend toward becoming more independent of parental control. Some young people have difficulty dealing with these new opportunities constructively, especially if they do not appreciate the responsibilities that should accompany them. For example, becoming sexually mature could lead to pregnancy and a host of problems to follow for a young teenage girl and her child, or it could lead to an interest in and a sensitivity to the awesome responsibilities involved in being parents. Part-time jobs that demand much time could lead to failure in academic studies, or they could lead to increased responsibility, competence in new areas, and self-awareness. Being able to drive a car could lead to tragedy, or it could lead to new opportunities to partake in useful experiences and help serve the needs of others. Some students make decisions during these years that have destructive consequences; some students gain the wherewithall to lead rich, highly constructive lives; and many will fall between those extremes.

Social studies instruction cannot by itself guarantee that all secondary students will emerge from high school as responsible citizens. It should, however, try to help students become more aware of the realities of the world and more competent in dealing with them. It should promote ideas like these: we live in a complex, diverse world where understanding the values of others is a necessity. Most significant human events did not simply happen; they were caused by people. Civilizations of today, with their strengths and weaknesses, are the result of a myriad of decisions made by people in the past. The decisions we make, regardless of their wisdom, will affect the lives and opportunities of ourselves, of our children, and of future generations. The freedom we treasure can go sour if not accompanied by responsibility to self and others.

The activities that follow have the following emphases:

- Investigation of how basic human institutions work.
- Investigation of the webs of relationships—past to present, present to future, one group to other groups, one nation to other nations.
- Investigation of important changes and emerging trends.
- Extension and application of skills in reading, writing, listening, speaking, thinking, and working with others.
- Opportunities to make decisions in real or simulated situations, to think about and discuss those decisions, and to explore ways of implementing them.

Table VII
Sample Activities for Senior High

Activity Number and Name	Page
4. Drawing Maps	93
5. Map Reading	94
6. Developing Concepts	95
7. Comic Strips	97
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9. Study with Purpose	98
10. Orienting Students to Textbooks	100
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14. Dealing with Differences among Students	109
15. Television	110
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17. Museums	113
18. Historical Documents	115
19. Using Newspapers as a Springboard to the Globe	117
20. Exploring the Community	119
21. Study of Local Political Issues	119
22. Community Investigation/Action Projects	120
25. Creating Audiovisual Productions	124
26. Learning Social Studies by Writing	125
27. Oral History	128
28. Collecting Data, Graphing It, Drawing Inferences	129
29. Statistics as Springboards for Thinking	129
30. Activities Related to Change	131
31. What Future?	132
33. Creating a Classroom or School Constitution	134
34. Simulation Activities	135
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37. Philosophizing About My Teaching	140

Activities in this chapter

Below are 37 activities or types of activities that may be used in social studies programs. The activities are grouped in 10 general categories, as shown below. Several of the activities, in fact, could be placed in more than one category. **Obviously, the 37 activities are only a small sample of the possibilities.**

Developing Empathy

1. Stories About Heroic Struggles
2. Understanding Causes and Consequences of Human Behavior

Maps and Globes

3. Map Making for Young Students
4. Drawing Maps
5. Map Reading

Concept Development

6. Developing Concepts
7. Comic Strips
8. A Consumer Price Index Activity

Reading Social Studies Materials

9. Study with Purpose
10. Orienting Students to Textbooks
11. Vocabulary Development Strategies
12. Mapping and Charting Reading Assignments
13. Going Beyond One Textbook
14. Dealing With Differences Among Students

Resources for "Thinking Social Studies"

15. Television
16. Scavenger Hunts in the Library
17. Museums
18. Historical Documents
19. Using Newspapers as a Springboard to the Globe

Studying the Community

20. Exploring the Community
21. Study of Local Political Issues
22. Community Investigation/Action Projects

Learning Content Through Writing and Creative Productions

23. Student Newspapers
24. The All-Purpose Quiz Board
25. Creating Audiovisual Productions
26. Learning Social Studies by Writing
27. Oral History

Drawing Inferences

28. Collecting Data, Graphing It, and Drawing Inferences
29. Statistics as Springboards for Thinking
30. Activities Related to Change
31. What Future?

Making Decisions

32. Productive Work in the Classroom
33. Creating a Classroom or School Constitution
34. Simulation Activities
35. Open-Ended Questions in History
36. Decision-Making Activities

Reflective Thinking

37. Philosophizing About My Teaching

Activity 1:
Stories about Heroic Struggles

Many stories that intrigue children relate well to values like fairness, social concern, courage, honesty, and responsibility. These stories, read to or by students, could be used to help students understand the values the various characters exemplify and help students think about how they could act as examples of the values.

For example, Charlotte, the spider, in E. B. White's book *Charlotte's Web* (Harper Row), felt a sense of concern and responsibility toward Wilbur, the pig. Charlotte did not want Wilbur to be slaughtered for people's dinner tables. Through resourceful thinking and action, Charlotte was able to save Wilbur's life. Any reader of this book, adult or child, would feel sad when Charlotte died of old age toward the end of the book. Students could be asked why they were sad when Charlotte died, what they liked about Charlotte, and what would be some examples of people showing responsibility and social concern, as Charlotte did.

There are all sorts of excellent children's books that provide examples of people acting by high ideals or that show consequences that follow when people act unwisely. For lists of excellent children's books see *A Guide for Children's Literature, K-8* (Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 1980), *Adventuring With Books, A Booklist for Pre-K–Grade 8* (Cianciolo, 1977), and "Notable Children's Trade Books in the Field of Social Studies," which appears in *Social Education* every April.

(Relevant objectives depend on the stories and how they are handled. See specific objectives under these goals in Chapter V: IA; IIB; VIII.)

Activity 2:
Understanding Causes and Consequences of Human Behavior

An important goal of education in social studies is to promote human understanding, of self and of others. Such understanding is needed to help young people develop wholesome attitudes toward themselves. For example, a young child who does not understand why a teacher or parent is grumpy or why a person or pet important to him or her died may believe—incorrectly—he or she was responsible, leading unnecessarily to feelings of guilt. Understanding the causes of behavior is also necessary to help young people behave in ways that will bring about satisfactory relationships, especially in cooperative enterprises.

Students could develop their own hunches (hypotheses) about why they and others act as they do in certain situations using the following theoretical model:

Motivating forces + Resources + Immediate physical setting = Behavior (where the + sign is read as "interacts with")

The causal factors are defined as follows:

Motivating factors—the needs and feelings that people try to satisfy.

Resources—an individual's abilities, skills, knowledge, perceptions, and problem-solving methods.

Immediate physical setting—the physical surroundings in which the behavior occurs.

This model was developed by a Title IV-C Project from Lakewood, Ohio (see Lakewood Public Schools, 1972, in the references section of this chapter).

The same type of behavior may have different causes, or different people—given their different resources—may behave differently in similar settings, even if they have similar motives. One person cannot know with certainty how another person feels or thinks; but using the above concepts one should become able to understand the behavior of the other person better and empathize with him or her.

A variety of activities could be used to help students understand human behavior better (see Lakewood Public Schools, 1972). For example:

- Collect photographs of people from newspapers, magazines, books, or commercial study prints. Have students match photographs to "feeling" words like happy, sad, angry, glad, worried, brave, jealous, lonely, embarrassed, and shy.
- Show a photograph of a person, and ask questions like these:
  - "How do you think this person feels?"
  - "What makes you think he feels that way?"
  - "What do you think happened to cause him to feel the way you think he feels?"

  Encourage students to express themselves, accepting their ideas without being critical. Encourage students to explain why they responded as they did, as in the case of the second question above.
- Find, read, and discuss with children stories that deal with people's behavior and emotions. It is important that students be able to identify with the characters in the stories. At certain points in a story, the teacher could stop reading, and ask such questions as "How does _____ feel about that?" "Why do you think he feels that way?" "What do you think he will do?' "What would you do if you were in _____'s place?" *Dealing with Causes of Behavior* (Lakewood Public Schools, 1972) lists some of the many possible books that may be used, as do the sources on children's books listed on page 91 above.

The book The Hundred Dresses *by Eleanor Estes (Harcourt Brace, 1944) is one of many excellent books that deals with the emotions of young people.*

(Relevant objectives depend on how this activity is implemented. See specific objectives under these goals in Chapter V: I A; II B, E; V B; VI A; VIII.)

Activity 3: Map Making for Young Students

One way to begin the study of maps is for students to make their own maps. Sometimes, children make their own maps before they enter school by making representations of neighborhoods using blocks. A map of the classroom could be made on the chalkboard with different colored chalks being used for different types of items (red for student desks, blue for bookcases, green for the teacher's desk, yellow for the reading corner, and so on). The use of the different colored chalks not only makes the map colorful, it also helps children learn how color may be used as a symbol to represent things. Students could also map the school playground, the block around the school, their backyards, their blocks, and the routes from home to school. As students get more experience, they could be encouraged to use scales. For example, when mapping the playground, they could pace off distances in steps and use graph paper with each step shown as one space.

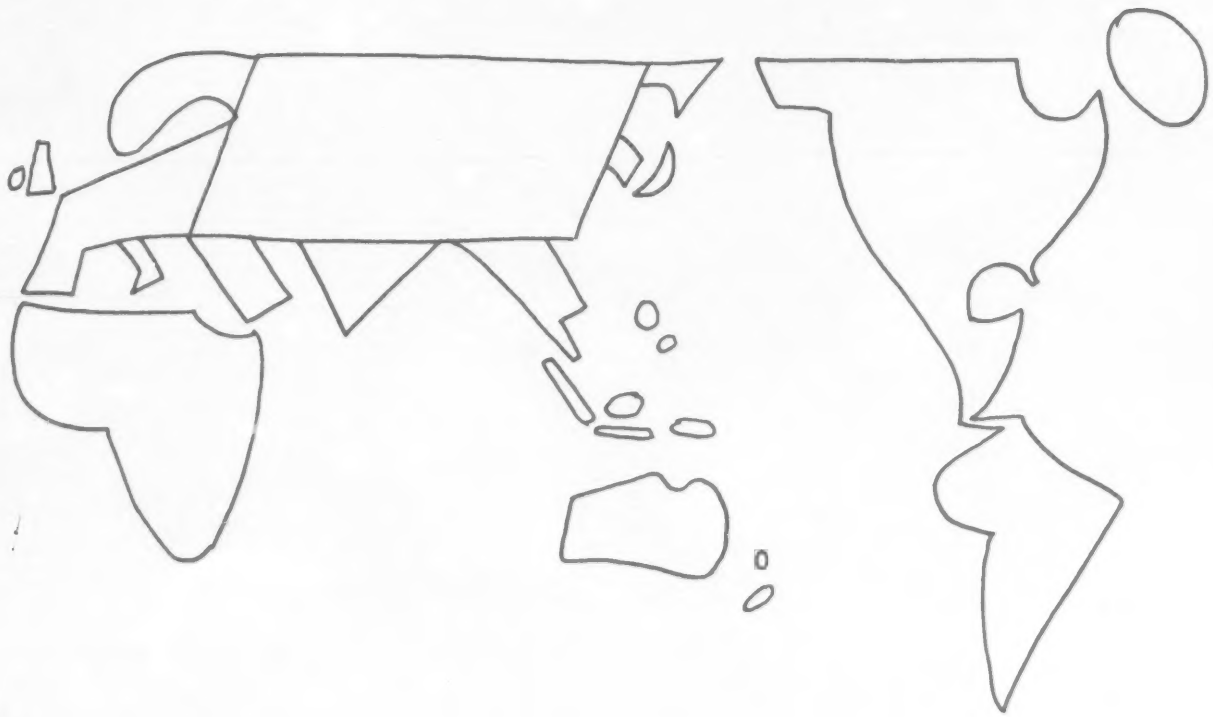
Use of color as a symbol may pose a problem for students who are colorblind.

Help students understand that a map is a tool for communicating selected information to the map reader. How good the map is depends upon the map's purpose and how clearly it presents data related to that purpose.

(Relevant objectives may be found under these goals in Chapter V:I B; II C.)

Activity 4:
Drawing Maps

"Which states border Missouri?" "Where is Africa in relation to Europe?" "What countries border the Soviet Union?" Students could memorize answers to such questions; yet there is a way to learn about such relationships that is more likely to be effective (and more fun, too). Ask students to draw answers to such questions. At first, students will feel this is an impossible task; yet tell them to use simple shapes to show their land masses. You may even ask them to draw the world. It might look something like the illustration below.



(Actually, their maps of the world would probably look different, for they are likely to place the United States in the middle. If they do so, ask them whether a Japanese, Soviet, English, or Iranian child would place the United States in the middle of the world? Such a line of questioning should help students begin to develop a global perspective).

Free-hand map drawing could be used in all sorts of history units and should help students learn locations of places in ways filling in outline maps cannot do. Such map drawing may also be used when studying current events.

At some point, students should be asked about how adequate their freehand maps are. Are they adequate to show general relationships and approximate locations of places? Are they adequate in determining boundary lines for countries, states, cities, or lots? When is precision needed and when is it unnecessary?

(Relevant objectives may be found under these goals in Chapter V: I B; II C.)

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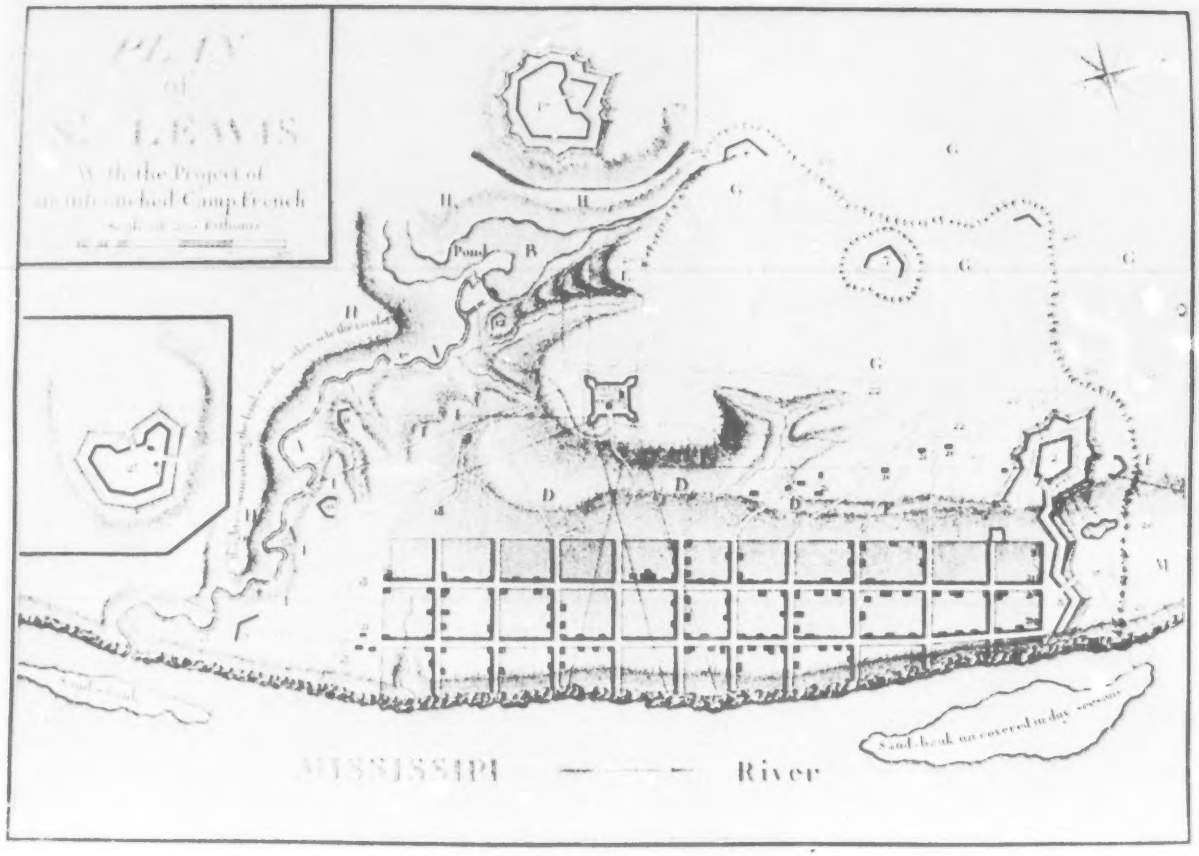

Reading maps, such as this map of early St. Louis, can give students a better understanding of historic events.

Activity 5: Map Reading

Maps in textbooks and atlases are often glossed over by teachers and students even though they may be rich with information. Sometimes, they even tell a story.

One way to help students learn to read maps effectively is to follow this three-step process:

1) **What do you see?** Ask students to state in words what they see on paper. They should mention colors, shapes, dots of various sizes, words of different types and sizes, a key, and other things.

2) **What can we learn from this map?** At this point ask students to specify the symbols and the things that they represent. Encourage them to use the key for this part of the activity. Have students list as many facts as they can based upon their observations of the map. The list could be large. Once students have identified many facts, compliment them on their productive thinking.

3) **What was the main thing that the map maker (cartographer) wanted us to learn from this map?** This question helps to summarize the map.

A similar approach could be used to interpret political cartoons.

Often it is useful to compare maps. For example, compare population density maps and rainfall maps to see if students can find relationships between water and where people choose to live.

(Relevant objectives depend on how this activity is carried out. See specific objectives under goals I B and II C and E in Chapter V.)

Activity 6:
Developing Concepts

Concepts are abstractions in people's minds that enable them to place things, ideas, or events in categories.

Thinking and communication is impossible without concepts. Without them we would be unable to make sense out of our environments. For example, we would not be able to understand nearby businesses if we had no concepts of goods, services, capital, investment, risk, profit, supply, demand, price, and opportunity cost. Students may have such concepts; yet their notions of them may not be clear and consistent with commonly-held notions. Thus, one function of social studies, from primary grades through college, should be to help students clarify and enrich their concepts in areas appropriate to social studies and citizenship education. Below is a short list of concepts related to social studies:

- Myself, others
- Spring, summer, fall, winter
- Feelings (trust, joy, guilt, anger, fear, shame, pride)
- Human needs
- Change (getting older, changes in the family, community, nation, or world)
- Work careers, employment, unemployment, underemployment
- Behavior, beliefs, values, attitudes
- Rules, law
- Fairness, justice, due process
- Consequences (what will happen next?)
- Family, other groups
- Places where people live and work (community, city, farm)
- America/other places; Americans/other people
- School, learning
- Legislative, executive, judicial, bureaucracy, agency
- Public, private
- City, state, nation; continent; France, Asia, St. Louis, etc.
- Maps, charts, tables
- Facts, hypotheses, value judgments
- Truth, probable truth, possible truth, probable error, error
- Communication
- Choice, decisions, opportunity cost, decision making
- Planning for the future
- Other times; past, present, future; 5th century, 19th century; 1930's; etc.
- Goods, services
- Consumption, production, resources, specialization
- Leaders, influence
- Government services, taxes
- Expected behavior (norms and roles)
- Money, trade
- Conflict, resolving conflict
- Encyclopedias, dictionaries, almanacs, atlases, fiction, nonfiction
-
-
-

To describe how to clarify and extend students' understanding of these concepts and others would be beyond the scope of this guide. Teachers' guides of many textbooks propose specific strategies. Below are a few suggestions:

- Have students differentiate instances of a concept from "non-instances."

Strategies like these may be used both for instructional activities and for evaluation. Concepts being taught in these strategies are italicized.

For example: "Which of these photographs shows a person who is *angry*?" "Which of these photographs shows scenes from *farms*?" "Which of the items in this box would a carpenter use in his work?"

- Have students provide examples of a concept. For example: "Suppose you have $5.00. What are some *services* you could buy with your money?. . . What are some *goods* you could buy with your money?"
- Show students photographs and ask them to make comparisons. For example: "All of these photographs are of *families*. What do you see about these families that are similar in all cases?. . . What do you see about these families that are different?" "All of these photographs show people *communicating* with each other. What do you see in all cases that is similar?. . . what do you see that is different?"
- Sometimes, it is necessary to expand concepts and destroy narrow stereotypes. For example, many children think *Americans* look, live, and speak just as they do. Through the use of photographs that show people of different ethnic groups and through stories about Americans from different backgrounds, students should learn that the term "American" is a proper label for anyone who is a citizen, regardless of ethnic group. Consider another example: Not all *Chinese* look alike. Students could be asked to find greeting cards showing Chinese people and make a collage of those cards. Next, have them go to magazines and other sources to bring in as many pictures of Chinese people as they can find. They will discover not only how varied Chinese look, but how the greeting cards reflect stereotypes more than reality.
- Illustrate some concepts with photographs, following which students are asked to give more examples from their own experience. For example, "These [five] photographs show people *helping to meet the needs of others*. Roger, what do you see in this first photograph?. . . What need of the child is the man helping to meet?. . . What are some other needs we all have?. . . How have people helped you meet those needs?"
- Clarify a concept's meaning by considering its opposite. For example: "We have been talking about *fairness*. Can someone give me an example of unfairness?. . . How would you feel in that case?" "Suppose we would have no rules in this school?" "Suppose instead of being part of a *family*, you were hatched from an egg and belong to no family. How would your life be different?" "Suppose there would be no *money* starting tomorrow. What difference would that make?"
- Illustrate a concept by means of a story. For example, the concept *fairness* is complex. It is not often easy to decide what is fair. In the Dr. Seuss book *Horton Hatches the Egg* (Random, 1940), just before the end of the story, Maize, the irresponsible, lazy bird, tells Horton to give her back the egg Horton has cared for. The egg was laid by Maize; yet Horton was the one who made sacrifices to take care of it. One way to put the question is: "What would be fair? Should Horton get the egg? Or should Maize get it?. . . What are your reasons?. . . If you were a judge and had to decide what would be fair, would it be easy to decide what is fair in this case?" (This suggestion is based upon an activity in a law-oriented curriculum guide developed in 1976 by the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education and The Missouri Bar.) The same story may be used to illustrate the concept *responsibility*. These questions may be asked, "A person who takes care to meet the needs of others is a person who is *responsible*. Was Horton responsible?. . . What did he do that was responsible?. . . And what else?. . . And what else?"

(Relevant objectives depend on the specific concepts involved and on how the activity is implemented. See specific objectives under these goals in Chapter V: I A-G; II B.)

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Activity 7:
Comic Strips

Divide students into groups of two or three students each. Give each group a set of comic strips from a newspaper. Have each group place their comics in piles based on common attributes, have them invent a name for each category of comic strips, and have them report to the class on the categories. Next, give each group a category of comics and have them collect the comic strips for at least one week. Finally, for each of the comic strips with which the group is working, the group should infer the social values emphasized, as well as any stereotypes.

This activity should help students develop skills in categorization and in drawing inferences; it should also stimulate interest in newspapers.

Stereotypes change. Note how Japanese were portrayed in comics during World War II in contrast to today.

(Relevant objectives depend on how this activity is implemented. See specific objectives under these goals in Chapter V: II B, E; III C; VI A; VIII.)

Activity 8:
A Consumer Price Index Activity

This activity, an extension of Activity 6, may be used most effectively in economics courses or units in which the Consumer Price Index is studied.

Allow a twelve week time span. Divide students into teams of two or three to survey prices at local grocery stores. Each team should price a clearly specified market basket of goods on a weekly basis. Each team must price goods on the same day (e.g. Monday) and must price the same items by specified quantity (e.g., 1 gallon of 2% milk, house brand; ½ gallon of vanilla ice cream, house brand; one 8-pack of Coca Cola; 1 ten ounce packet of frozen Green Giant French style green beans; etc.) Each team is responsible for surveying prices at one grocery store during the entire activity.

Using a large chart on the wall, record for each store the total price of the basket of groceries. Note each week which store has the highest prices for the basket of groceries and which store has the lowest prices. Also, take some time each week to discuss two or three specific food items and compare their prices on the chalkboard (e.g., compare one pound of ground beef, one gallon of milk, etc.).

Prices of Groceries by Week

Week	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Store A												
Store B												
Store C												
Store D												

Plan to complete the project at a time to coincide with the study of the consumer price index. Then, using the first week as a base, compare each

successive week to the base as with the consumer price index. To develop the "local grocery basket price index" for a given week use this formula:

Index figure for given week	=	Average basket price for the week	÷	Average basket price for Week 1	×	100

For example, if the average price of the basket for the third week was $42 and the average price for the first week was $38, the local consumer grocery basket price index (CGBPI) would be calculated as follows:

CGBPI = 42 ÷ 38 × 100 (which would equal 111)

It is also possible not only to calculate grocery prices, but meal prices at fast food chains and the prices of various gasolines at local service stations. In such cases the local consumer price index could include a mix of grocery prices, gasoline, and one meal out at a fast food chain. The social studies teacher could even work with the home economics teacher in an effort to make the quantities of food and gasoline reasonable for a family of four for one week.

(Relevant objectives for this activity could be found under these goals in Chapter V: I D; II A, D; III B-D; VI A.)

Activity 9: Study with Purpose

The assignment, "Read pages 235-38 in your textbook," is less likely to lead students to productive learning than an assignment that helps students understand both what to read, and the purposes of the assignment as well. Here are a few suggestions:

- Discuss with students ahead of time the purposes for the reading. The purposes could include the following:
  1. To acquire information. (Getting meanings of specific words from context; getting main ideas, sequence, theme; following directions; doing application activities.)
  2. To interpret and extrapolate based on a reading. (What is the author's point of view? What will happen if what the author recommends does occur?)
  3. To evoke critical-creative reactions. (Are any fallacies in reasoning used? Is the author trying to play down or play up the bad or good effects of a policy or proposed policy? Is there one idea you find useful? By what standards would you evaluate the ideas in this reading? Do you feel this person was justified in his behavior?)
  4. To evoke effective responses or reactions. (How do you feel about. . . ? Would you like to have been there? Which character, or real person, would you most like to be? Does the resolution of the problem seem fair to you? Which topic was most interesting to you? Why? Would you like further information about this topic?)
  5. To help students with specific reading skills. (Which section did you find the most difficult to understand? What words did you have to look up? How long did it take you to read this selection? Did you read this chapter at a different rate than you read the newspaper or a short story? What notes did you take while reading? Did you understand the charts and graphs? Locate and reread the section that tells about. . . .)
- Help students clarify the purpose for reading an assignment by helping them understand how purposes vary. Here is an approach that may be used:
  1. Have students identify purposes they might have for reading the following:

advertisements in a newspaper
news articles in a newspaper
editorials in a newspaper
sports articles in a newspaper
stock market reports in a newspaper
articles about automobiles in *Consumer Reports*
a Supreme Court decision
an entry (word) in a dictionary
an article about a country in an encyclopedia
statistics on population in an almanac

2. What purposes might these people have for reading what they are reading?
   - A physician reads over his records on a patient before he sees the patient.
   - A lawyer defending a person in a criminal case reviews court decisions similar to the case with which he is involved.
   - A clerk at an auto parts shop looks up the serial number of a particular auto part.
   - The President reads editorials of the *New York Times* and *Washington Post*.
3. Look at this document (or chapter) you will soon read. What purposes might you have when reading it?

- Too often students are simply told to read a chapter or a part of a chapter of a textbook with little guidance from the teacher. Research has shown that students get more out of their reading when they use strategies like these:
  1. Before they begin reading, they should survey the assignment, looking closely at the chapter title, the subheadings, the illustrations, and the questions at the end of the chapter.
  2. Before they begin reading, they should hypothesize (make informed guesses based on Step 1 above) what the main ideas of the reading will be about. They may or may not write their hypotheses on paper. They should also list any terms they see that they do not understand.
  3. Now, students may read the selection. Their reading should be active, seeking to determine whether their hypotheses were correct and seeking to understand the unfamiliar terms.
  4. After the students read the assignment, they should recite to themselves or others what they read and try to restate the main ideas in their own words.
  5. If students are to remember the ideas of the assignment, they need to review what they have read on subsequent days.

These strategies—basically the SQ3R approach to reading—(Survey, Question, Read, Recite, Review)—do not come to students automatically. The strategies must be taught to students with class time allocated to helping students with Steps 1 to 5. Steps 1 and 2 can even lead to stimulating teaching: "Let's see how smart you really are. Can you figure what this chapter is going to say without reading even one of its paragraphs?" Students should be directed to use the title, subheadings, and illustrations to indicate what they think the chapter will say. The teacher should respond by challenging students to indicate their reasons for their hunches.

- Sometimes it is useful to prepare study guides to help make the reading assignments more productive. The study guide may consist of questions sequenced as follows:
  1. Questions to help students identify main ideas and important factual details.
  2. Questions to help students make interpretations of the reading. (Interpretations would include such things as making comparisons, hypothesizing cause-and-effect relationships, and identifying points of view.)

3. Questions to help students apply the ideas and interpretations to themselves or to family situations.
4. Questions to help students apply ideas from the reading to new situations.

For additional suggestions see Metcalf (1980).

Once individual students complete their responses to the study guide's questions, they could meet in groups to compare their responses. On some items there ought to be agreement on correct answers, whereas on other items there may be a variety of possible answers. A good study guide should help students comprehend the reading with greater depth of understanding and help students evaluate the accuracy of ideas in their textbooks.

(Relevant objectives depend upon how this activity is implemented. See specific objectives under these goals in Chapter V: I A-G; II B.)

Activity 10: Orienting Students to Textbooks

The following questions may be used in all classrooms that use textbooks. They are best used early in the school year to help orient students to books that are new to them.

Title Page

- Where do you find the title page in this book?
- What is the copyright date?
- Does it matter whether *this book* has a recent copyright date? Why? Why not?
- Who are the authors?
- Who is the publisher? Where was the book published?

Table of Contents

- How is the book arranged? by chapters? by sections? by units?
- How many pages are in this book?
- Is the book arranged chronologically, by topic, or by combination of the two arrangements?
- What topics would you guess you would be reading about on page 22? 250? 305? (This question could be used as a game. Students could pick numbers between 0 and 9 and the teacher could call on 3 students and ask them what numbers they picked to get the three digits of a number. Students could then look at the Table of Contents to make their guesses about what kind of content will be on that page.)
- Does this look like a book that must be read from beginning to end, or could one start anywhere? Explain.

Preface

- What purpose do the authors give for writing this book?
- What kinds of influence do the authors hope this book will have on you?
- Why do you think we are using this book for this course?
- Do you agree with the authors' purposes?
- Do you think these authors will be objective? Do you think they will deal with important questions?

Index

As a game students could be shown the index, given a word, and challenged to use the index to find the definition of that word in the body of the text.

Chapters

- Look at three chapters in the next five minutes. What characteristics do you find that all three chapters have in common?
- how could you use those characteristics to study your book more efficiently?

Graphs, Charts, Tables, Maps

Take any graph from the book at random and investigate it.

- Step 1—What information does this visual aid convey to us? (Consider the title, the nature of the aid [bar graph, line graph, picture graph, physical map, political map, etc.], the units of measure and whether they start at zero, and the symbols. Could this graph stand alone without the printed material in the text? Could the printed material of the text stand alone without the graph?)
- Step 2—Seek deeper meanings (encourage students to identify trends, draw inferences, generalize, draw conclusions, and make predictions).

This activity should be repeated until students become skilled in interpreting such aids. As the book is read, students should be encouraged to continue studying visual aids.

Glossaries

- Does the book have a glossary?
- Does the textbook give you any clues about which words will appear in the glossary?
- Take a word that is italicized—if that is the clue that the word will be in the glossary—and have students define it using only context clues. Next have them look up how the word is defined in the glossary. Finally, have them see how the word is defined in the dictionary. Compare the three definitions.
- Will this glossary be useful? Why? Why not?

Special Text Format

- Do you see any special features in this book different from those in books for other subjects? (E.g., boldface type, color or italics to point out specific words, chapter overviews and/or summaries, study questions, graphs, maps, footnotes, timelines, tables, suggestions for further reading, photographs and reproductions of artwork, etc.)
- The publisher spent money to include such features. Should it have done so? Are these features of any value to you, the consumer of the book?

For more suggestions for helping students get more from their textbooks see *Selected Social Studies Skills, 88 Reinforcement Exercises for Secondary Students* (Ege, et al., 1979), and see "Using Textbooks Creatively" (Metcalf, 1980).

(Relevant objectives may be found under these goals in Chapter V: II B-E.)

Activity 11: Vocabulary Development Strategies

A. Using Context Clues

- The teacher could adapt the cloze procedures, described in Chapter VIII (see pages 160-162), to the textbook the students are using to help them

understand the vocabulary by using context clues. Here are two examples:

"When the Kickapoos came to central Illinois they found a land rich in *natural resources*. Natural resources are things provided by _____." (From *Exploring Our World Regions*, Follett, 1977, p. 119)

"What exactly is credit? In very simple terms, it is a _____ to pay later for goods and services received now. (From *Civil Justice*, Scholastic, 1978, p. 37)

In each case students are to fill in the missing words. If this activity is too difficult for the students, clues could be given. For example:

When the Kickapoos came to central Illinois they found a land rich in *natural resources*. Natural resources are things provided by:
a. animals.
b. nature.
c. the President.

"What exactly is credit? In very simple terms, it is a pr_____ to pay later for goods and services received now."

- A variation on the above activity is to record a news broadcast, a commercial, or some other radio program. Play the recording to the students and stop it at certain points and ask them what word will come next. Students should compare what they propose with the actual broadcast. This could be carried out as a game with competing teams.

B. Using Morpheme Analysis

Morphemes are the smallest units of meaning in the English language. E.g.: "The," "Say," and "wait" and "ed" in "waited."

Students could discover morphemes inductively, seek their meanings and derivations using dictionaries, and use such knowledge to understand words containing the morpheme. For example:

monarchy
anarchy
oligarchy
monarch

The common morpheme is "arch," which comes from the Greek word *archos*, which means "rule."

Here's another example:

monarch
monoplane
monochrome

The common morpheme is "mon," which comes from the Greek word *monos*, which means "alone" or "single."

Such an exercise should help students understand that the term "monarchy" refers to rule by a single person. Even more important, the exercise would help students become able to make educated guesses about the meanings of other words which have the roots "arch" and "mon." This type of activity could be used with many social studies terms to involve students actively in the search for meanings of unfamiliar terms.

C. Using Student Experiences

- Prior to assigning a reading to students the teacher could identify one or two vocabulary terms of great importance in social studies. For example, suppose a term such as "economy," "caste system," "prejudice," "law," or "Urban League," is found in the pages of the reading. Students could be

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asked what they associate with the word. Accept any answers. After many students have responded, students could be asked why they said what they said. Other questions that may be used at this stage are: "Where did you hear the term?" "Did others of you hear the term in situations like the one Robert just mentioned?" The goal is to draw out what the term means to the students. They should not be told if their answers are right or wrong.

Next, have them look for the term in their reading. Using context clues, have them make additions to and clarifications of what they think the term means. Some of the strategies noted above could also be used to help students understand "economy" not just as a vocabulary term but as a meaningful concept in their everyday thinking.

- Give students groups of terms and ask them to categorize them *in as many ways as they can think of*, following which they are asked to share their categories and their reasoning. Here are three examples of lists of terms they could categorize:

List 1	**List 2**	**List 3**
vote	St. Louis	Congress
salary	Missouri	veto
mayor	China	legislature
bill	Illinois	elect
economy	Jefferson City	judge
elect	United States	bill
corporation	Great Britain	Supreme Court
worker	New York City	mayor
legislator	Connecticut	jury
produce goods	Rome	appoint

This activity should not only help students clarify meanings of terms in the list, but also help them clarify broader concepts used to categorize the terms. For example, List 1 might be used to help students learn to differentiate "things political" from "things economic" and, in the process, clarify their understanding of those two concepts.

- Give students a chance to apply concepts by finding instances of them in their reading. For example, if students are studying the concepts "production" and "consumption" they could find examples of those concepts in their reading.

For more ideas on vocabulary development, see *Teaching Reading in the Social Studies* by Lunstrum and Taylor (1978). It is a rich resource for social studies teachers on strategies to help students develop reading skills needed to succeed in social studies.

(Relevant objectives depend on the specific content and how this activity is implemented. See specific objectives under these goals in Chapter V: I A-G; II B, G; III C, D; VI A.)

Activity 12
Mapping and Charting Reading Assignments

Students often remember information from books better when they see relationships among the ideas. Below are a few approaches students could use to summarize ideas from reading assignments in ways to see how the ideas relate to each other.

- Students could outline the chapter using a format like:

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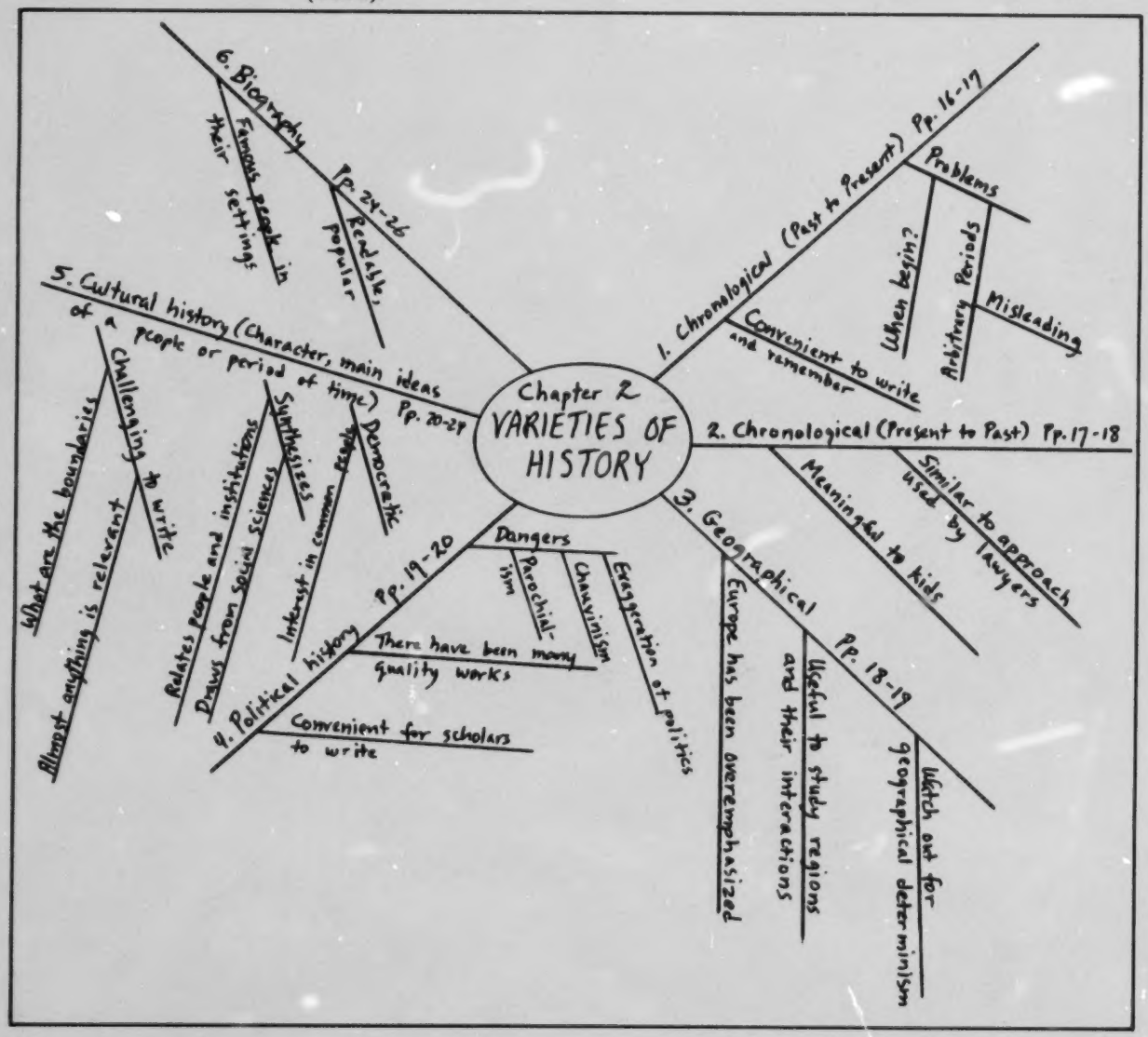
Main Idea or Chapter Title

I. Subtopic 1
   A. Detail 1
   B. Detail 2
      1. Example 1
      2. Example 2
II. Subtopic 2
   A. Detail 1
      1. Example 1
      2. Example 2
      3. Example 3
   B. Detail 2
   C. Detail 3

A number of these suggestions are adaptations of ideas shared with social studies teachers by Dr. Barry K. Beyer, social studies education professor from Carnegie-Mellon University at a meeting on the Missouri Western State College Campus (St. Joseph) on October 28, 1977.

- Students could map the main ideas of the chapter they read. This procedure forces students to keep all ideas on one side of a sheet of paper. The example below is a map of Chapter 2, "The Varieties of History" from Henry Steele Commager's book *The Nature and Study of History* (1965).



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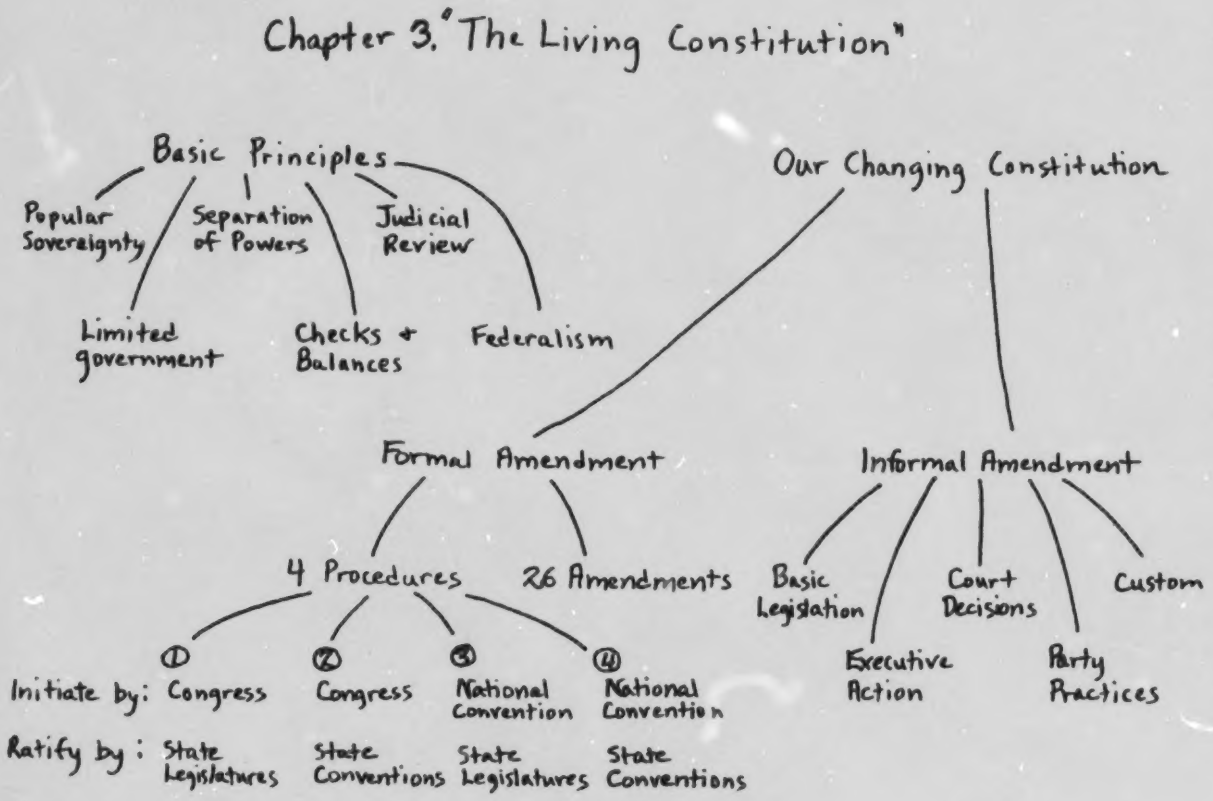
- Some chapters lend themselves to being charted in a hierarchal manner, as in the case of Chapter 3, "The Living Constitution" from *Magruder's American Government* (Allyn and Bacon, 1978).



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• Sometimes a chapter may be summarized in matrix form:

Social Institutions	Defining Characteristics	Needs They Meet
Family		
Education		
Economic Institutions		
Political Institutions		
Religion		

Many of the topics, subtopics, and details in the above formats would come straight from the chapter's headings and subheadings. Such outlines, maps, or charts should help students get more meaning out of their reading,

if they fill in as much information as possible *before* reading paragraphs. They would also be useful as tools for chapter reviews.

For other suggestions see Metcalf (1980).

(Relevant objectives depend on the specific content and how this activity is implemented. See specific objectives under these goals in Chapter V: I A-G; II B; III C.)

Activity 13: Going Beyond One Textbook

"The source of knowledge authority [in U.S. science, math, and social studies classrooms] was not so much the teacher—it was the textbook." That statement was one of the main findings in a study of American schools prepared for the National Science Foundation Center for Instructional Research and Curriculum Evaluation, 1978, p. 13:59.

Many social studies teachers recognize that the use of a single textbook as the main source of knowledge in a subject has several problems: (a) Often the text is written at a reading level inappropriate for a number of the students. (b) Textbooks often describe events using a high level of generality.* (c) Who is to say that the content decisions made by one publisher are the right ones? (d) Textbooks become dated in social studies as interpretations within history, government, economics, and other social sciences change. (e) Students can get a broader perspective of an event if they are exposed to it from more than one viewpoint. They become more able to discriminate interpretations from facts. (f) Ideas are presented as fact, and interpretations are presented as truth, when scholars who specialize in history and the social sciences are contesting the accuracy of those ideas and the validity of those interpretations. (g) Finally, the idea that truth lies in a textbook conveys a false idea of reality. Truth is really much harder to find in the real world. Being tested on the "facts" of a textbook has little in common with being an effective person in this society.

To avoid such problems, most social studies teachers *know* it would be better to use many sources of information, such as other textbooks, other reference works, other books, and magazine articles. The problem is that they are not always sure *how* to go beyond reliance on the single textbook.

Here are some suggestions:

- Make certain there are sufficient resources available. This means that the district will need to outfit the room with different sets of books, to include not only different textbooks, but also books of documents, almanacs, atlases, and other relevant publications. (The quantity of books needed in each set of books would depend upon whether individual students are provided with textbooks of their own.) In addition, make certain that the school's library has additional reference books, related fiction, a vertical file, and magazines related to the course being taught. The library ought to be accessible to students during class time.
- One function of a textbook is to provide an outline for the presentation of content for units. Where several textbooks are used, teachers must provide the organization for their own units. Some teachers will examine a few textbooks to form an outline, synthesizing the outlines of other people. Of course, there are other ways to organize a unit. For example: In a unit on

*As more events occur, there is more information to include between the book's covers. Rather than make books fatter and heavier, events are often described in a more general way. Publishers can also avoid controversial content, which may reduce sales, by describing events generally.

immigration to the United States students could be divided into committees, each of which would work with a different book, would find the book's chapter on immigration, and would list the main topics the book deals with related to immigration. Each committee could place its ideas on the chalkboard, following which the class could eliminate duplicative topics, determine which topics it considers most important, and organize those topics in a logical order.

- For the various topics in a unit, questions need to be formulated for students to research using different sources. The questions could be made up by the class. Such a procedure would be a natural follow-up to the example in the preceding paragraph. If the teacher makes up the questions and presents them to students in the form of a study guide, the questions could be organized as follows:

  1. Questions about the source of information.
     Authors?
     Title of source?
     Publisher and data?
  2. Questions calling for factual details and information.
  3. Questions calling for interpretations and the drawing of inferences.
  4. Questions calling for application of ideas, for generalizing, and for extending the meaning of concepts beyond their context in the reading.

  Of course, not all study guides should follow the above sequence of questions.

- Students should compare the information they collect using the different sources. Sometimes, a student should be asked to seek and compare answers to the same question using different sources; sometimes, each student should use a single source and compare findings in class. When different sources provide different explanations, causes, or consequences of the same event, such inconsistencies may be used to explore why different people emphasize different ideas and consider ways of determining which author's interpretation is best. If the class is a history class, an historian might be invited to the class to discuss how he or she deals with such problems.

- Students could investigate a topic and present findings in the form of a panel discussion. For example, in a unit on immigration students could be divided into committees to prepare for the following presentations:

  1. Why did people immigrate into the United States?
  2. What has been the history of U.S. immigration legislation?
  3. Resolved: That the United States Should Restrict Immigration. (Pro arguments)
  4. Resolved: That the United States Should Restrict Immigration. (Con arguments)
  5. Rebuttal: CON side followed by PRO side.
  6. What inferences about the United States may be drawn from its immigration policies?

- Have students use both new and old textbooks to make comparisons and formulate hypotheses to explain their different content and interpretations.

Such approaches as these should help students gain an insight into the richness of content in social studies more than is possible with one book. For other suggestions, see Metcalf (1980).

(Relevant objectives depend on the content and how this activity is implemented. See specific objectives under these goals in Chapter V: I A-G; II B; III A-D; IV B; VI A.)

Activity 14:
Dealing with Differences among Students

Since each student is a unique human being, no two students are exactly alike in how they learn. Dunn and Dunn (1979) have identified 18 ways in which individuals may differ in their learning styles. Those ways may be summarized as follows:

1. Individuals respond differently to such elements of their environment as sounds, light, temperature, room layout, and furniture designs. What one student needs to assist his or her learning—such as silence—may be distracting to other students.
2. Individuals differ in what motivates them, in their persistence, in their sense of responsibility, and in their need for having activities and assignments structured for them.
3. Individuals differ in whether they learn best by themselves, with another student, in small groups, directly from the teacher, or in varied situations.
4. Individuals differ in their perceptual strengths (auditory, visual, tactile, kinesthetic), in their need to be mobile, and in their ability to learn efficiently at various times of day or night.

Many of the above differences pose a problem for teachers. It would be much easier to teach effectively if everyone had similar learning capabilities. Yet the fact is that we are all different. Even teachers differ from one another in their learning styles: For example, some teachers do their best thinking early in the morning, whereas others think best at night.

Concern with learning styles should lead the teacher to do the following:

1. Be accepting of differences in learning styles. Those differences could be discussed in class, and students could be encouraged to find ways to learn that work best for themselves.
2. Find ways to build on strengths of individual students. For example:
   a. *For students who learn better auditorally than visually,* give them the opportunity to learn by recordings, television, sound movies, audio-filmstrips, videotapes, interviews, and discussions.
   b. *For students who learn well in small groups,* give them such opportunities.
   c. *For students who need assignments structured,* provide them with detailed steps on how to do assignments, counsel them, and give them feedback along the way.
   d. *For students who need to move around,* involve them in role plays and in responsibilities that legitimize their being out of their seats; seat them in a location where their moving around will not distract others.
   e. *For students easily distracted,* seat them in places where there would be fewer distractions.
3. Vary the activities to help students learn and broaden their learning styles. For example:
   a. Involve students in individualized activities, in groups of two, in small groups, and in whole-class instruction.
   b. Use lectures, role plays, simulations, reading assignments, and other types of activities.
   c. Vary who does the teaching (the teachers, peers, self).
4. Combine techniques to help students learn and broaden their learning repertoire. For example:
   a. The same content may be taught using lecture, film, simulations, readings, and other approaches. Since students vary in how they learn best, use combinations of those approaches.

b. On occasions when the lecture approach is used, direct the presentation to visual as well as auditory senses (for examples, use transparencies or the chalkboard for outlines, terms, and diagrams; use film and slides; and involve students in demonstrations and role plays).

5. When students have learning problems, provide opportunities to learn or express knowledge in ways that their problems will not be a handicap:
   a. Let students who have difficulty reading learn content using recordings, film, role plays, and other approaches. (Of course, also help them develop reading competency using approaches like those in Activities 9, 10, 11, 12, and 13.)
   b. Let students who have difficulty recalling content have references on hand, and help them learn to use those references efficiently. Use open-book tests on occasion.
   c. Let students who have frustration in writing express themselves in oral reports, demonstrations, tape recordings of reports, and audio-visual presentations. (Help them write more effectively too.)
   d. For students from other countries whose communication skills in English are limited, have classmates assist as much as possible, use gestures and the chalkboard to supplement oral speech, and list important terms and outline the day's lesson on the chalkboard for the student to use as a reference.

Many more ideas could be presented. Entire books have been written on how to deal with student differences. It is important to avoid the notion that students with learning problems, who seem "slow," need not be challenged and should simply be expected to sit through class and collect low grades. These students will eventually become parents, workers, and voters. In fact, some students who appear incompetent in school turn out to be successful adults in the business world. What a pity they were not given the opportunity in school to show what they could do! Perhaps, their lives would be richer and their contributions to the community greater if school were adjusted better to their learning strengths.

One final point: Many of the activities in this chapter, especially those related to studying the community and decision making, may be used with all students, including those who have learning problems.

(Relevant objectives depend on how this activity is implemented. See specific objectives under all goals in Chapter V.)

Activity 15: Television

Even though there may be much "junk" on television, there are a number of excellent programs social studies teachers may use to accomplish their instructional objectives. The Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education has joined consortia under the leadership of the Agency for Instructional Television to help make possible the production of three television series relevant to social studies: *Bread and Butterflies* (career education), *Trade Offs* (economic education), and *ThinkAbout* (application for basic skills). The teachers' guides to these programs have many excellent ideas in them, even for teachers who do not have access to the series. To get a copy of the guides contact the Instructional Television Station that serves your district or write to AIT, Box A, Bloomington, Indiana 47401, to purchase copies at low cost. A sample lesson from the *ThinkAbout* guide is reproduced below.

PROGRAM 26

CULTURAL PATTERNS

TEACHING POINTS

- **Cultural patterns, the shared beliefs and behavior of a group of people, are passed from generation to generation.**
- **The spoken word is used in all cultures to pass along information.**
- **Writing a story or poem is a way to use language for entertainment, aesthetic appreciation, or self-expression.**

BEFORE THE PROGRAM

Explain that this program is about how groups of people pass their ideas and beliefs from one generation to another. Have students watch for how these are passed from older people to younger people.

PROGRAM SUMMARY

Linda, a Mexican-American girl, is saddened by the death of her grandfather, "Abuelito." Alone in her room, she tries to come to terms with her sorrow by recording his death in her journal. Then she begins reading through journal entries she made during her last visit with Abuelito. At first she was bored and found his storytelling tiresome. Her older brother Ricky had counseled her that Abuelito's stories were about her, and important to her—but she didn't understand how.

Abuelito's stories were his way of maintaining cultural and family continuity. He told Linda about her great grandmother, an Indian woman whose Indian name (which meant Morning Star) had been forgotten. He gave Linda the only photograph ever taken of her. He also took Linda to see the old ranch where the Martinez family lived for more than a hundred years. The land was like a living person to Abuelito. In the course of her visit, Linda became increasingly interested in her roots.

Interrupting her reverie, Ricky comes into the room. They talk together. Linda realizes now that, though Abuelito has died, in a sense he's still very much alive. He's handed down a lot to Linda and she will hand it on someday too. That's the pattern of it.

AFTER THE PROGRAM

Talk about. . .

- **How shared ideas and behaviors (or cultural patterns) can be passed along from older to younger persons.**
- **Why it is important to preserve cultural patterns.**
- **How to preserve cultural patterns.**

Have students discuss and write about some cultural patterns in their lives.

Have students interview and collect folk stories of "long ago" from grandparents or older people in the neighborhood. Make a journal or tape library of the stories. Include old songs, jingles, poetry, drawings, photographs, newspaper clippings.

Quality programming is also available on commercial television. Prime Time School Television (PTST) is an organization teachers may join to learn ahead of time about programs of educational value and to receive materials on how to use those programs in teaching. For example, PTST developed instructional materials for *Roots*, *Holocaust*, *The Long Search* (a series on great religions of the world), and many other programs. The PTST address is: 120 South LaSalle Street, Chicago, Illinois 60603.

(Relevant objectives depend on program content and previous and follow-up activities. See specific objectives under goals I A-G and II F in Chapter V.)

Activity 16:
Scavenger Hunts in the Library

The intermediate grades are an excellent time to help students become skilled in using reference aids in books (tables of contents, indexes, glossaries), library reference aids (*Readers' Guide* and card catalogue), and reference books (encyclopedias, dictionaries, almanacs, and atlases). A scavenger hunt like the one in the box below could be used to help students become competent library researchers.

1. On what pages in your textbook is James Garfield mentioned? _____
2. On what page in your textbook is "populist" defined? _____
3. What would you find at 40° N. lat, 0° long? _____
4. What is the largest city that is at 80° longitude? _____
   What is its latitude? _____
5. Where did you find your information for your answers to Questions 3 and 4? _____
6. Who is the President of Mexico? _____
7. How many square miles are in Japan? _____ the United States? _____
   What is the population of Japan? _____ the United States? _____
   How does the area of Japan compare to the area of the United States? _____
   How does the population of Japan compare to the population of the United States? _____
   Where did you get your information on the area and population of Japan and the United States? _____
8. Names three magazine articles about U.S. trade with Japan.

	Magazine Article Title	Magazine	Date	Pages
1.	_____	_____	_____	_____
2.	_____	_____	_____	_____
3.	_____	_____	_____	_____

Where did you get your information for your answer to this question?
_____

Many other questions are possible. In fact, questions could be placed on 3 x 5 cards. Students could be organized in teams of three people each and each team asked to draw nine question cards. The first team to answer all questions they pick correctly would win the game.

For suggested activities related to social studies references, see *Selected Social Studies Skills, 88 Reinforcement Lessons for Secondary Social Studies*, edited by Stuart Stockhaus (1979).

(Relevant objectives depend on how this activity is implemented. See specific objectives under these goals in Chapter V: I A-G; II B-G; III B.)

Activity 17: Museums

Missouri is blessed with many excellent museums that may be used as resources in social studies. One way to use museums is to take field trips. The success of a field trip depends greatly on how clearly the teacher has objectives in mind and how well the trip was planned.

Planning a Field Trip

Before the Visit:

- Make arrangements at the museum, and talk with the guide beforehand if possible to explain your objectives and what you hope to accomplish.
- Set the stage and objectives with the group. Some role playing can help.
- Explain behavior expectations and the purpose of a museum. The museum preserves what would otherwise disappear if not properly protected and conserved.
- Locate rest rooms and establish a procedure in advance. If you plan on eating during the trip, establish a time and procedure for that also.
- Plan the bus route and estimate the time to be spent on the bus. Choose a route that reinforces your objectives. While students are on the bus review with them the purposes of the field trip and discuss what they should look for.
- Instruct the adults who are helping supervise the students on what to expect of your students. Ratio of adults to students should be about one to ten.

During the Visit:

- Allow time for questions and answers from students. A work sheet prepared in advance built around objectives of the trip is always helpful.
- A museum is a public place, and the students represent their school. Since other people will be in the museum, students will have an opportunity to draw positive attention to their school by their respectful behavior.

Field trips to nearby museums are always enjoyable and instructive for students and teachers.

After the Visit:

- Evaluate whether students accomplish your objectives as a result of the field trip.
- Relate the visit to present and future classroom work.
- How could the field trip have been more valuable? If you know things the museum should be doing or providing, do not hesitate to call the museum's education specialist.

A museum may offer students and teachers a unique opportunity to visit the past, to explore it anew, and to get to know more about the people who preceded us and influenced our present. Each person will have a different experience based on background, interest, and imagination. A minute or two to quietly contemplate an experience is often more valuable than we realize.

Finding Out About Museum Resources in Missouri

- *Missouri Museums Associates*

  One of the quickest ways of learning about the various museums of Missouri is to get in touch with the Missouri Museums Associates, a voluntary association of many of the cultural agencies of the state. Generally speaking the officers of the organization have come from the major metropolitan areas of the state, particularly around St. Joseph, Kansas City, or St. Louis. In recent years, however, a growing number of the historic county and house museums have joined the organization. The easiest way to get in contact with the current officers and find out about the general museum climate for education in Missouri is to write to the Missouri Botanical Garden, Library and Education Department, P.O. Box 299, St. Louis, Missouri, 63110. *A list of museums appears in the appendix of this guide.*

- *Cultural Educators Roundtable, St. Louis*

  Many of the museums that belong to the Museum Educators of Greater St. Louis offer substantial services to the residents of the state, particularly schools. A current list of the Roundtable members can be obtained by writing Museum Education Office, Jefferson National Expansion Memorial, 11 North 4th Street, St. Louis, Missouri 63102.

- *Specially funded learning package programs from museums*

  The Missouri Committee for the Humanities and the Missouri Arts Council have funded lending services at major museums in the state. The Resource Center of the St. Louis Art Museum and the Museum Education Office of the Jefferson National Expansion Memorial (Arch and Old Courthouse) have learning packages, illustrated with slides, for use throughout the state. In both cases, the slide packages are mailed to the school free of charge, and the teacher mails the material back to the respective museum when finished.

  No fee is connected with the service. Addresses are:

Museum Education Office Jefferson National Expansion Memorial 11 North 4th Street St. Louis, Mo. 63102 (314) 425-4472/6010	The Resource Center The St. Louis Art Museum Forest Park St. Louis, Mo. 63110 (314) 726-2316/721-0067

- *Traveling Exhibits (low security to medium security)*

  The Mid-America Arts Alliance and the Missouri Arts Council maintain and assemble various exhibits which have materials relating well to social studies. Many of these are rated as low security risks, and some are available for school use. Some schools will ask a local bank or public building to accept an exhibit which can then be used for school purposes.

To obtain information on these programs, write:

Missouri Arts Council
Raeder Place
727 North First Street
St. Louis, Mo. 63102
(314) 241-7900

Mid-America Arts Alliance
Suite 550
20 West Ninth Street
Kansas City, Mo. 64105
(816) 421-1388

(Relevant objectives depend on the specific museum and how it is explored. See specific objectives under these goals in Chapter V: I A-G; II A, B; III A, B; IV A, B; VIII.)

Activity 18: Historical Documents

To read about the past using only textbooks and other secondary sources may prevent students from understanding events and issues of the past as people living in those times saw them. An ideal way to understand how people viewed events of their own times is to examine primary source materials and contemporary accounts and interpretations of the past events. Often such materials are reproduced and incorporated in books sold to the public and stored in libraries and government offices. Such materials include:

Laws (Constitutions, statutes, ordinances)
Minutes of governmental bodies (city council)
Bills and resolutions
Court opinions
Speeches
Sales receipts
Letters and memoranda
Newspaper and magazine articles and cartoons
Advertisements
Paintings, drawings, and prints (scenes from the past, showing how things have changed)
Land and tax records
Vital statistics (state and local)
Wills and probate records (county)

The following are sources where primary source materials or reproductions of those materials may be found:

- *In libraries.* Determine the topic of investigation; then, seek primary source accounts related to that topic, or seek secondary accounts that incorporate primary source materials in them. Certain libraries have particularly extensive collections, such as the St. Louis Public Library, the Kansas City Public Library, the Truman Library, and the various university libraries in the state.
- *In bookstores.* Many bookstores have history book sections. In those sections one may often find books of historical documents, sometimes in inexpensive paperback form.
- *In book catalogues.* *The Social Studies School Service Catalogue*, issued annually, lists topics often taught in social studies, such as U.S. history, government, law education, and world history. Under each topic is an annotated list of books, simulations, documentary photo aids, and sound filmstrips. Many of the documentary photo aids and sound filmstrips make extensive use of photographs of primary source materials, as do many of the paperback books listed, such as the *Spectrum Eyewitness Accounts of American History.*

- *In journals of interest to social studies teachers.* See *Social Education*, the journal of the National Council for the Social Studies. It includes a feature entitled "Document of the Month", which is produced by the National Archives. See also *History Teacher*, Society for History Education, California State University, Long Beach, California 90840. A new journal that may be useful is *Teaching History, A Journal of Methods*, Emporia State University, Emporia, Kansas 68801. Finally, the National Archives produces a quarterly called *Prologue, The Journal of the National Archives*, which includes articles on American history, information about genealogical and local history, and information about accessions and availability of government documents (if interested in subscribing, contact the Cashier, National Archives, Washington, D.C. 20408).
- *In publications of the United States Government.* The National Archives produces, loans, and sells reproductions of primary source material useful for history classes. The following pamphlets from the National Archives are among those that may be obtained by teachers: "National Archives of the United States," "List of Slides," "Documents from America's Past," "Select List of Publications of the National Archives and Record Service," "National Audiovisual Center," "Pictures of United States Navy Ships, 1775-1941," "Pictures of the Revolutionary War," "Pictures of the Civil War," "Pictures of the American West, 1848-1912," "Indians in the United States." Select List of Sound Recordings: "Voices of World War II, 1937-1945," and "Regional Branches of the National Archives." These brochures *and others* are available from the National Archives, Washington, D.C. 20408, or from the Federal Archives and Records Center, NARS, 2306 East 95th Street, Kansas City, Missouri 64131 (816/926-7271). Sound recordings owned by the Archives may be reproduced for a nominal fee (contact Chief-NNVM Motion Picture and Sound Recording Branch, National Archives, Washington, D.C. 20408). The Kansas City branch of the Archives might also be helpful in obtaining records, films, and video tapes, as well as copies of microfilms of all sorts of documents. Another source of U.S. Government publications, some of which are reproductions of primary sources, is the United States Government Printing Office. It distributes a free listing of its publications on a monthly basis. To get on the mailing list, write Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Attention: Mail List (STOP SSOM), Washington, D.C. 20402.
- *In historical societies.* The State Historical Society of Missouri, Hitt and Lowry Streets, Columbia, Missouri 65201 (314/443-3165), has histories of every county in the state as well as many other documents and records—over 380,000 books, pamphlets, and state publications, over 42,000 photographs. It produces the *Missouri Historical Review* quarterly, in which many articles cite primary source materials. In addition, there is the Missouri Historical Society, Lindell and DeBaliviere, St. Louis, Missouri 63112 (314/361-9265), and numerous county historical societies, some of which have active programs.
- *In the Missouri State Archives.* The State Archives has records relating to circuit courts, probate courts, marriages, wills, and deeds for all counties from the times of their establishment to approximately 1900. It also has state census records by county—heads of households, members of households, their ages, and places of their birth—for 1830 and 1840. For more information about how the Archives can help serve Missouri citizens, request information on the services of the Archives by writing to the Missouri State Archives, 1001 Industrial Drive, Jefferson City, Missouri, 65102.
- *In museums and historical sites.* (See Activity 17.)
- *In local government buildings.* County courthouses and city halls often contain information of interest to people investigating the histories of their localities.

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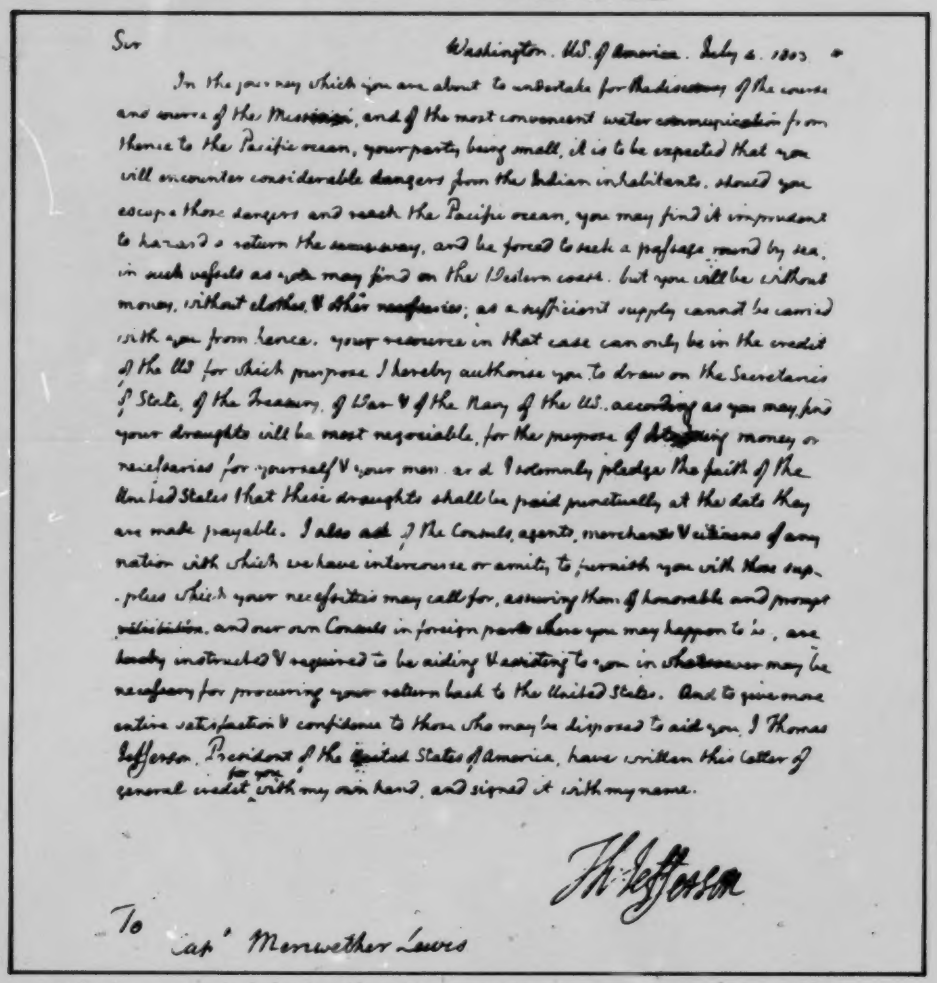


Sir Washington. US. of America. July 4. 1803.

In the journey which you are about to undertake for the discovery of the course and source of the Missouri, and of the most convenient water communication from thence to the Pacific ocean, your party being small, it is to be expected that you will encounter considerable dangers from the Indian inhabitants. should you escape these dangers and reach the Pacific ocean, you may find it imprudent to hazard a return the same way, and be forced to seek a passage round by sea, in such vessels as you may find on the Western coast. but you will be without money, without clothes & other necessaries; as a sufficient supply cannot be carried with you from hence. your resources in that case can only be in the credit of the US for which purpose I hereby authorise you to draw on the Secretaries of State, of the Treasury, of War & of the Navy of the US. according as you may find your draughts will be most negociable, for the purpose of obtaining money or necessaries for yourself & your men. and I solemnly pledge the faith of the United States that these draughts shall be paid punctually at the date they are made payable. I also ask of the Consuls, agents, merchants & citizens of any nation with which we have intercourse or amity, to furnish you with these supplies which your necessities may call for, assuring them of honorable and prompt satisfaction. and our own Consuls in foreign ports where you may happen to be, are hereby instructed & required to be aiding & assisting to you in whatsoever may be necessary for procuring your return back to the United States. And to give more entire satisfaction & confidence to those who may be disposed to aid you, I Thomas Jefferson, President of the United States of America, have written this letter of general credit for you with my own hand, and signed it with my name.

Th: Jefferson

To Capt Meriwether Lewis

Historic documents, such as this letter written by Thomas Jefferson, can give students a clearer understanding of history.

It is important to remember that just because a document is old does not mean it is authentic and credible. Useful references on critical analysis of primary source materials are Louis Gottschalk's book, *Understanding History, A Primer of Historical Method* (New York: Knopf, 1950, pp. 86-170) and Jacques Barzun and Henry Graff's book *The Modern Researcher* (New York: Harcourt Brace, 1977, pp. 83-110). To some extent, evaluating the report of an eyewitness observer of an event involves asking questions of the report similar to those an attorney would use when cross-examining a witness.

(Relevant objectives depend upon the specific documents and how they are used. See objectives under these goals in Chapter V: I A-G; II B-G; III A-D; IV A-B.)

Activity 19: Using Newspapers as a Springboard to the Globe

The activity below* is one example of how newspapers may be used to study about the world. The activity may easily be updated by using headlines of recent newspapers:

*The activity is one example of many dealing with global issues that may be found in Switzer and Mulloy, *Global Issues, Activities and Resources for the High School Teacher* (1979).

Directions: Listed below are 15 headlines from U.S. newspapers. Across from each headline are two continuum scales that can be used to measure the degree of impact (from 1=very little, to 5=very much) of the event depicted in the headline. Use the first scale to indicate how much impact the event would have on you as an individual. Use the second scale to indicate the degree of impact the event could have on the United States as a nation. Indicate your choices by circling a number from 1 to 5 on each scale.

	Little Impact				Much Impact
1. OPEC Nations Raise Oil Prices 10%					
Impact on me	1	2	3	4	5
Impact on the United States	1	2	3	4	5
2. Freeze Strikes Brazilian Coffee Plantations					
Impact on me	1	2	3	4	5
Impact on the United States	1	2	3	4	5
3. Dollar Falls in European Money Markets					
Impact on me	1	2	3	4	5
Impact on the United States	1	2	3	4	5
4. Strikes Close Bolivian Tin Mines					
Impact on me	1	2	3	4	5
Impact on the United States	1	2	3	4	5
5. Peru Declares 200-Mile Fishing Limit					
Impact on me	1	2	3	4	5
Impact on the United States	1	2	3	4	5
6. Flu Epidemic Strikes Tokyo					
Impact on me	1	2	3	4	5
Impact on the United States	1	2	3	4	5
7. France Announces Production of 10 SSTs					
Impact on me	1	2	3	4	5
Impact on the United States	1	2	3	4	5
8. Mexico Discovers New Oil Reserves					
Impact on me	1	2	3	4	5
Impact on the United States	1	2	3	4	5
9. Oil Spill Pollutes Mediterranean Beaches					
Impact on me	1	2	3	4	5
Impact on the United States	1	2	3	4	5
10. Egyptian-Israeli Peace Accord Nears					
Impact on me	1	2	3	4	5
Impact on the United States	1	2	3	4	5
11. Russian Wheat Harvest Below Expectations					
Impact on me	1	2	3	4	5
Impact on the United States	1	2	3	4	5
12. Kenya Approves Use of DDT					
Impact on me	1	2	3	4	5
Impact on the United States	1	2	3	4	5
13. India Announces Development of H-Bomb					
Impact on me	1	2	3	4	5
Impact on the United States	1	2	3	4	5
14. Strikes in Iran Stop Oil Production					
Impact on me	1	2	3	4	5
Impact on the United States	1	2	3	4	5
15. Japan Agrees to Accept More Imports					
Impact on me	1	2	3	4	5
Impact on the United States	1	2	3	4	5

(Relevant objectives depend upon the specific content and how the newspapers are used. See specific objectives under goals in Chapter V: I A-G; II B-E; III A-D; IV A, B; V A-C; VI A, B; VIII.)

Activity 20:
Exploring the Community

Study of the local community has traditionally been important, especially in primary grades. We know young children's interests transcend the local community of the present; yet many important questions can be explored using field trips, guest speakers, and parents as resource people. The quality of what is learned will depend less on the specific content than on the quality of the questions. Here are some questions that could be a part of community studies:

- What sort of work do people do in this community?... What attracts people to the work they do?... What kinds of skills do people need for _____ job?... Where do they get those skills?... Is this a kind of job that depends on others?... How? Is this job one that is more in need now than in the past?... Is this job one that will be in demand in the future?
- What sort of services does this government provide?... Who runs the government?... How do people get the job of doing _____ in the government?... What would happen if this service would no longer be provided?... How do we pay for government services?
- What kinds of buildings do we see on this street?... How do these buildings look different from those on that street?... Why do you think those buildings look different?... What sorts of changes do you see taking place on this block?... What do you think is leading to those changes?... What do you think will happen if such changes continue?
- What kinds of goods or services does this business provide?... How is this business owned?... What kinds of expenses does this business have?... How does this business get money to operate?... What changes are occurring in this business?... If a customer is dissatisfied with a product or service purchased from this business, what, if anything, should the customer do?
- How diverse are the people of this community?... Is there as much diversity in this community as in _____ community?... How can we find out how diverse our community really is?... What sorts of traditions exist among the people of different groups in this community?... (Such study could include study of positive attachments people have to their groups, as well as honest study of some problems that may exist among groups in the locality and how the problems might be handled. Older guest speakers would help place current problems in perspective.)

Such questions could be explored using observation and interviews. Instamatic camera photographs and field trips notes could be used to keep a record of findings. Those records could be used for oral and written reports, which students could make to the class and to their parents.

(Relevant objectives depend on how this activity is implemented. See specific objectives under these goals in Chapter V: I B-D, F, G; II A; III A-D; IV A, B; VI A.)

Activity 21:
Study of Local Political Issues

Have students follow local newspapers, choose some actual problems in their local communities, and bring clippings to class where the problems could be analyzed and discussed. Key questions to be explored are these:

- What is the problem?
- What citizens and government groups are affected by the problem?
- What is being done to help solve the problem by citizens, interest groups, and government?
- What are the costs of solving the problem?

Have the students dramatize or draw political cartoons about the community problem. In dramatizing, have students take the roles of various citizen groups and public officials, such as the mayor, councilmen, city manager, and county commissioners, whichever individuals or groups are appropriate. The teacher will need to guide students in discussing the problem, taking action on it, and arriving at a solution to it.

(Relevant objectives depend on how this activity is implemented. See specific objectives under goals in Chapter V: I E, II B; III A-D; IV B; V A-C; VI A, B.)

Activity 22: Community Investigation/Action Projects

Suppose the physical education faculty of Any City Local School District, Missouri, decided to improve students' knowledge and skills in baseball. To do so they select the best books they can find on baseball and have students in all grade levels read about the sport. Students were tested often and demonstrated an excellent knowledge of the sport on essay and multiple choice tests. The coaches had much confidence in their varsity team because the varsity students read more about baseball and made the highest grades on all tests. Unfortunately, the varsity team was unable to win a game all season.

Suppose the social studies faculty of Any City Local School District, Missouri, decides to improve the civic competence of its students in regard to the Any City local government and to Missouri state government. They sought and purchased the best government textbooks they could find and had their students spend extra time reading the chapters on local government. Students demonstrated knowledge of local government on tests, just as the varsity team demonstrated knowledge of baseball on tests. Question: Would the students who studied the local government be more effective in their roles of citizens than were the varsity baseball players in their roles as baseball players? Probably not, since learning how to apply knowledge and competencies cannot be learned exclusively by reading and class discussions.

The study guides that follow were designed to help students gain a practical understanding of government, help students learn how citizens participate to influence government, and help students develop skills of inquiry and influence.

(Relevant objectives will depend upon the specific content. See objectives under these goals in Chapter V: I A-G; II A, B, F, G; III A-D; IV A, B; VI A; VII A-C; VIII.)

Study Guide 1. Observing Local Government Meetings

Activity 1

1. Look up the schedule of meetings for your local government.
2. Attend one of the meetings. Bring back the agenda and your notes from the meeting.
3. Analyze the types of problems that were dealt with. How many were solved? How were they solved?
4. Who are the members of this governmental body? What is their term of office? How are they selected for this office? What are their duties?

Activity 1A

Attend these meetings regularly for a period of time. How effective is this governmental body? How did you decide what "effective" means in this case?

Activity 1B

Follow the above procedure for two of the governmental bodies and compare them.

Activity 2

1. Select an item that seems interesting to you from the agenda for a governmental agency meeting.
2. Research the background for this item: use the local newspaper, the city clerk, residents of the community, your parents, the local public library.

   Who brought up this proposal?
   How long has it been under discussion?
   Who will be affected by it?
   Who is in favor of it?
   Who is opposed to it?

3. Ask for an interview with the person who first proposed this matter. How did he go about it? Why? Where did he get the idea?
4. Has someone been appointed to study this proposal? What changes would be brought about if this proposal is passed? How much will it cost?
5. Make a collection of newspaper clippings on this proposal.
6. Keep a record of all the answers to these questions.

Study Guide 2. Getting Action or Service

1. **Examine a local problem**
   Is there something in your town that needs fixing or correcting? Perhaps weeds are covering a stop sign, an intersection is dangerous, or recreation opportunities in the community are limited for young people.
2. **Find out where to take your problem**
   You cannot solve the problem by yourself. You need action by the city, county, or state.
3. **The job is to find out whom to call, write, or visit**
   a. *Telephone*
   Use the telephone directory, which lists the departments of your city government. Call the department that seems most likely to handle your problem. Be prepared to describe the problem. Write down the name of the person to whom you are speaking. Jot down the answer you are given. If you are advised to call someone else, keep track of this call, too.
   b. *Write*
   Write a letter to the department describing the problem. Keep a carbon copy of your letter. Keep the letter you get in response, or take notes on a telephone call if you receive one.
   c. *Visit*
   Arrange for an appointment with the proper governmental official in order to discuss your problem. Afterwards take notes on what happened during your interview.
4. **Follow up**
   Who took care of your problem and when? If nothing happens, contact the government department again and write to or ask to speak to the person who handled your original request.

Explain who you are and ask what action he or she took. If the problem was taken care of, write, telephone, or visit the person who took care of it and express your appreciation.

5. **Record all data**
   Make a list of dates, times, and names of people you called, wrote, or visited and the action taken to solve the problem. How many people (telephone operators, secretaries, supervisors, repairmen, government officials) became involved?
6. **Further action**
   If you can't get any action, what can you do? Is there an elected official whom you can contact and explain your problem? Is the local newspaper interested? Could you write a letter to the editor?

Study Guide 3. A Study of Groups That Try to Influence Political Decision Making*

1. **History**
   a. When and where did this group originate?
   b. What has been the history of this group?
   c. Who are some prominent members associated with this group?
2. **Membership**
   a. Who may join? What qualifications are there for membership?
   b. Are there any dues?
   c. How is the group financed?
   d. When and where do they meet?
   e. In what parts of the U.S. does this group flourish?
   f. How many members are there nationally? Locally?
   g. Who are the present officers of this group?
3. **Purposes**
   a. What are the goals of this group?
   b. What kind of program does the group have?
   c. What do members of the group believe in?
   d. What are some accomplishments of this group?
   e. What methods does the group use to influence political decision making?
   f. Is this group a radical, reactionary, liberal or conservative group? Explain, defining terms you use clearly.
4. **Display**
   Set up a display: bulletin board, scrapbook, or table display. Collect literature, clippings, articles, photographs, posters, graphs, charts, bumper stickers, records.
5. **Bibliography**
   Submit an alphabetized bibliography of articles, books, pamphlets on this group.
6. **Reports**
   a. Prepare a written report.
   b. Give an oral report or skit.

*Such organizations include The American Bar Association, American Bankers Association, American Civil Liberties Union, American Friends Service Committee, American Legion, American Medical Association, Anti-Defamation League of B'nai Brith, Common Cause, Daughters of the American Revolution, Democratic National Committee, Ducks Unlimited, Foreign Policy Association, League of Women Voters, National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, National Congress of American Indians, National Education Association, National Rifle Association, Planned Parenthood, Republican National Committee, Society of Automotive Engineers, UNICEF, United Daughters of the Confederacy, *and many others.* They are listed in recent almanacs. Some teachers may want to have students select different organizations representing similar groups to compare goals, strategies, and accomplishments (e.g.: American Federation of Teachers and National Education Association; American Medical Association and National Medical Association; National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, Association for the Study of Negro Life and History, Congress of Racial Equality, People United to Save Humanity, Southern Christian Leadership Conference, Urban League, etc.).

Activity 23:
Student Newspapers

Since many roles are involved in producing a newspaper, this activity could be combined with Activity 31.

Some primary grade teachers involve students in producing their own classroom or grade level newspapers. Such an activity requires students to use and extend writing and art skills to communicate social studies ideas (e.g., a student newspaper may be used to show findings of Activity 20 above).

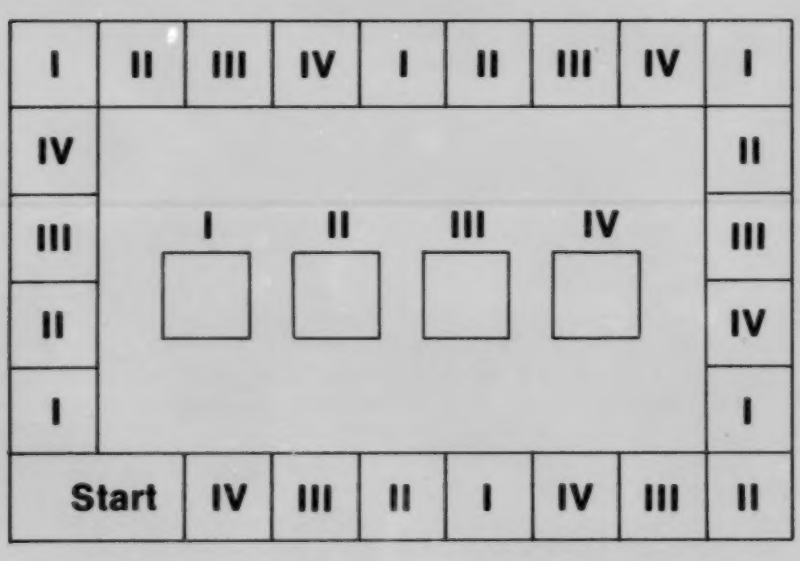
Producing a newspaper involves a number of economic decisions, decisions about how to use scarce resources of supplies, labor, and time. One way to advance economic understanding is to have the newspaper pay for itself. A local newspaper editor could visit with the class to discuss how his or her paper is financed and answer other questions. Local district policies permitting, students might sell papers or solicit advertisements which they might design themselves. Different students could handle "advertising accounts" with different businesses and learn more about the operation of the business in the process.

With this kind of activity, what students may learn about their community, about group decision making, about the need for specialization, about how to communicate clearly through the written word is limited only by time and imagination.

(Relevant objectives will depend on how this activity is implemented. See objectives under these goal areas: I A-E, G; II A, B; III A-C; IV A, B.)

Activity 24:
The All-Purpose Quiz Board

Make a game board out of poster board similar to this:



Have students make their own markers, as well as question cards that relate to whatever topic the class is studying. "I Questions" are easiest and earn 1 point if answered correctly, whereas "IV Questions" are hardest and earn 4 points if answered correctly. Students may use dice to get around the board. The game is over when the first person lands exactly on "start," or

when a certain time limit is reached. The winner is the student or team that has earned the most points. Small numbers of students may play the game during free time, or the entire class may play using teams. (In the latter case, rather than use poster board, the game board could be in the form of an overhead transparency.)

The board may be designed differently and may be used for any subject matter that lends itself to quiz questions. Students will not only learn much by playing the game; *they will also learn by making up good questions.*

This activity is an adaptation of an activity found in *The Rights and Responsibilities of Citizenship in a Free Society, Law-Oriented Curriculum Guide for Grades K-12*, which is available from The Missouri Bar.

(Relevant objectives will depend upon the specific content. See objectives listed under these goals in Chapter V: I A-G.)

Activity 25: Creating Audiovisual Productions

Having a class produce an audiovisual production is one way to get students actively involved with the subject matter.

- If a filmstrip already exists that is suitable, consider using the visual part of the filmstrip and having the students prepare their own script to accompany the pictures. (The commercial tape or record that accompanies the filmstrip can be saved for the students to hear at the end of the project for comparison with their own script.) Show the students the filmstrip without the sound, have students select certain pictures to research, organize them into committees to research the pictures, and have them draft and edit a script for the filmstrip based on their research. The final phases of this activity would include students reading the script and mixing in music and other sound effects to add to the drama of the filmstrip presentation.
- For some topics students could develop their own audiovisual presentations from scratch, based on their own research and using slides and scripts they make. (Slides may be made using inexpensive transparent self-adhesive plastic sheets available at dime stores: a. Find small photographs in magazines that are printed on shiny clay-based paper. b. Cut out a 2"x2" square of the self-adhesive plastic, peel off backing, and press directly onto the photo, removing all air bubbles. c. Soak the self-adhesive plastic with photo in a solution of warm water and a small amount of detergent for a few minutes. d. Remove the plastic from water and peel off the magazine paper. The print from the photo should remain on the self-adhesive plastic's sticky side. Keeping the plastic under water, gently rub from the plastic any of the white clay left behind on the transparent plastic. e. Press plastic wrap on the sticky side of the self-adhesive plastic while it is still wet. f. Cut to fit in slide mount, insert, close mount, and heat edges of the slide mount with a warm iron until it is sealed shut. Slide mounts may be bought from photography shops.)

Students may also use cameras to take slides of people, objects, pictures in books, items in museums, and cartoons from newspapers. (Kodak produces an inexpensive outfit for taking slides from still pictures in books.) Another alternative is to borrow or purchase slides from museums (see "Museum Resources Available for Use in School and Available by Mail" in the appendix on p. 186).

(Relevant objectives will depend upon the content and how this activity is implemented. See objectives under these goals in Chapter V: I B-G; II E-G; III A-D; IV A, B; VI A, B; VIII.)

Activity 26:
Learning Social Studies by Writing

In most social studies classrooms students write little. Assignments emphasize reading more than writing, and tests emphasize the short answer more than the essay. Given the heavy work demands on teachers, this state of affairs is easily explained. It takes less effort to grade assignments and tests which ask students to do little writing, especially if students write poorly. Moreover, "Why should social studies teachers worry about student writing when English teachers have that responsibility?"

We urge social studies teachers to consider giving more emphasis to student writing for these reasons:

1. English teachers cannot be expected to help students write effectively *in social studies related matters.*
2. One cannot communicate effectively in writing without thinking. One can think about and learn social studies content effectively while writing.
3. Writing involves students actively in their own learning. As they become more successful in expressing their ideas on paper, they will also develop confidence in their intellectual competence.
4. The task of grading student writing may be handled in ways that do not place heavy burdens on the time and energy of teachers.

The suggestions that follow are based upon and elaborate upon the four assumptions above:

Suggestions for writing assignments

1. *Help students want to write.*

Many students are negative about writing. Their feelings are often the result of their past experiences with writing in school. Their experiences have led them to believe that people write primarily for teachers to grade (with red pencil or pen). Such perceptions must change if students are to develop more positive feelings toward writing assignments. Here are some ways to help students become more positive about writing:

- When students write for the teacher, the teacher could deliberately depart from a judgmental role, and move to a listener-responder role. Comments would include statements like these: "The example you gave helps me understand what you are saying very well." "I understand what you are saying, but I wonder if you have enough evidence to back up your position here."
- Students could be directed to write for other audiences, such as peers, friends, or real or imaginary characters. Those characters might be people from other times and places.
- Students should be helped to understand their roles and purposes in writing. E.g.: "Write a summary of the causes of the Civil War that Mrs. Smith's fifth grade class will read and be able to understand." "Write a letter to Senator _____ explaining what position you hope he will take on the _____ project." "Imagine you are a Japanese journalist who has just spent a year in the United States studying its political system. You are to draft a news interpretation article for your paper explaining the United States Presidential election and how the election could affect Japan."

2. *Help students think about their topics before they begin writing.*

Before students begin writing, they need to think about their subject matter and consider their purposes and approaches to the writing task. Here

are some strategies that may be used *prior to writing*:

- Have each student examine data—charts, tables, maps, primary source material—and consider: (a) What do the data say literally? (b) What ideas did the author mean to convey? (c) What do these data mean to me and how do they fit (or not fit) with my knowledge of this topic? (d) What hypothesis can I offer to explain these data? (e) Why would I trust (or distrust) the accuracy of these data? These questions could be discussed by students in small groups.
- Students could discuss what they will write about, brainstorming and classifying data about a given topic. E.g., "Let's list all factors we can think of that led to World War I. . . . . Now, let's see which factors seem to go together . . . . What might we label this group of factors or causes? . . . . Would the audience for the histories we will write understand the labels we have listed? Do we need some simpler language?"
- Students might be given concrete experiences to make their subject matter more meaningful. For example, if they will be writing about the Great Depression, they might be shown films on that subject or might have an experience with a simulation like *The Game of Farming* (Macmillan).
- Students might be asked to think about questions like these:
  1. What is the problem you are facing?
  2. What is the main point you want to make?
  3. What arguments can you use to support your main point?
  4. What evidence do you have to support those arguments? What additional evidence do you need?
  5. What objections or questions might your readers raise? How will you deal with those objections or questions?
  6. What is important about what you propose to write?
- Help students consider their topics from specific frames of reference. For example, how would you feel about expanded use of nuclear power if you were a construction worker looking for a job? . . . if you were a parent living near the site of a proposed atomic power plant? . . . if you were the President of Union Electric Company? . . . if you were a person who fishes near the site of a proposed nuclear power plant?

3. Help students rewrite their drafts to improve what they have written.

Rewriting involves: (a) evaluating the extent to which the writing accomplished its goals, (b) revising the writing to improve the logic of the argument and the quality of the assertions, and (c) correcting errors in sentence structure, word usage, punctuation, or spelling. Here are some suggestions:

- Give students a checklist to help them in their rewriting. The checklist could ask students: to identify their topic sentences, the supporting evidence, and the examples; to consider whether the evidence and examples support their topic sentences as well as possible; and to consider whether the topic sentences clearly communicate their intended messages.
- Have students exchange their writing with classmates for peer evaluations. Student readers could identify what they consider to be the main point and could comment on the strength of the evidence, the appropriateness and clarity of the examples, and the logic of the line of reasoning. After this peer review, the student could rewrite the paper using the suggestions of classmates.
- Ask students to rewrite their papers, this time changing either the role they were to assume or the intended audience for whom they were writing.
- As regards editing for grammar and spelling, students should be directed to concentrate on only one or two problems at a time, such as spelling and using complete sentences, or noun-verb agreement and punctuation. Different students, having different writing skills, should concentrate on different problem areas.

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Suggestions for evaluating student writing

- Teacher evaluations should *not* focus on all aspects of essay writing. The teacher needs to decide what aspects of the writing relate most directly to the purpose of the assignment. Then, the teacher would read paying attention *only* to those aspects of the writing. For example, if students are to write a letter to a Senator favoring or opposing restrictions on immigration from a part of the world where there is a refugee problem, the teacher would look for matters like these: (a) Did the student clearly identify his/her point of view? (b) Did the student identify reasons that clearly support that point of view? (c) Did the student provide strong supporting evidence and appropriate, convincing emotional appeals? By looking only for such matters, evaluation time should be reduced.
- The teacher need not grade the quality of each student's written work every time. The teacher could check all papers to see if they were completed, and grade the quality of one-fifth of the papers each time. This way, instead of grading 150 papers, the teacher need grade only 30 papers, and the quality of the comments should improve. Students should understand that this is a reasonable way for a busy teacher to help students improve the quality of their written work, especially when the teacher explains to all students how he or she examined the papers sampled and shows students how to evaluate their own papers.
- The teacher need *not* be the only person to evaluate student writing. Students could be asked to evaluate their own writing using a list of questions designed by the teacher. Among other things, students could be asked to identify the strengths and weaknesses of their writing and their plans to improve it.
- Student writing could also be evaluated by peers, using an approach like this: Students would read their papers slowly to fellow students in small groups. Their peers would then try to tell the student what they infer the thesis is, first expressing themselves in several sentences, then doing so in one sentence, and finally doing so with one word found in the paper and also with one word *not* found in the paper. Such a strategy should help students learn whether their writing communicated its intended message clearly. Students may also write reactions in the margins of their classmates' papers.
- As regards comments on student papers: (a) Keep comments brief and focused on the main points of the assignment. (b) Be as positive as possible. (c) Avoid lots of red marks. Help students with one or two problems at a time. (d) Use questions to help the student judge his or her own writing.

Conclusion

The above suggestions would involve change in the teaching methods of many social studies teachers. Change implies the need to expend new effort. Question: Are such changes worth the effort? If we value clearer thinking in our students, better understanding of content, and increased capacity to be influential as a citizen, such changes as these are well worth the effort.

For more information on the development of writing skills in social studies, see "Writing to Learn in Social Studies," edited by Barry K. Beyer and Anita Brostoff, in *Social Education*, March, 1979, and *A Writing Guide for Missouri Schools K-12*, which was developed by the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education. Many of the ideas above were suggested by the Beyer and Brostoff Special Section of *Social Education*.

(Relevant objectives will depend upon the specific content and how this activity is implemented. See specific objectives under these goals in Chapter V: I A-G; II A-G; III A-D; IV A, VIII.)

Activity 27:
Oral History

To many students history is a study of important people, such as presidents, kings, supreme court justices, and generals. The idea of history as interpretations of the experiences of ordinary people is often neglected in schools that teach history largely from textbooks. In fact, history tends to emphasize most those people who have kept written records or about whom records were kept. Moreover, history has also tended to emphasize men more than women and children.

To find out about the lives of ordinary men, women, and children in the past, a number of social studies teachers have involved their students in oral history projects, where students study the recent past of their own communities using interviews of older residents who are willing to share their recollections of the past, their photographs, clothing, and other memorabilia. Student investigations have explored such areas as these: homes and furnishings; foods, their production, preservation, and preparation; clothing; schools and churches; music and musical instruments; recreation; transportation; funerals and cemeteries; medicines and medical care; the role of women; lives of children; local industries; important individuals in the community; labor-management relations; local issues dealt with by the government; and relationships among ethnic groups and social classes in the community. The main equipment students use are tape recorders and cameras.

To investigate areas the students have selected, students search for background information from the local historical society, records from the courthouse (wills and deeds), census statistics, city directories, and old high school yearbooks. Students list names of people who might have information about the topics they are investigating, develop interview questions, and practice interviewing each other using those questions. According to *Oral History: What? Why? How?*, developed in 1975 by the Pennsylvania Department of Education, the following suggestions are offered for interviews:

1. Ask brief questions phrased to require more of an answer than "yes" or "no."
2. Don't be afraid to have pauses in the interview.
3. Don't interrupt a good story even though it does not seem to be relevant to your planned outline of questions; tangents taken by an interviewee may lead to productive information.
4. Don't challenge or try to correct information which you think is inaccurate; check later for accuracy or possible bias.
5. Don't switch the recorder off unless there is a genuine interruption.
6. Don't do any more talking than necessary—it's an interview, not a dialogue.
7. Don't continue the interview beyond an hour; stop whenever the person being interviewed appears tired.
8. Check the time at the beginning of the interview and remember the length of the tape so that you can cut off the interview at least five minutes before the tape ends.

In an interview situation students need to introduce themselves, explain their project, and get written permission to publish verbal or written information as well as photographs. The person interviewed needs to be assured that nothing he or she says would be used in a way detrimental to him or her.

Following the interview, the tape recording may be transcribed, edited, and used as a basis for articles in locally produced magazines, books, or pamphlets.

Teachers who have a background in historiography have an advantage at this point. They could challenge students to consider the reliability and validity of the various recollections and help them consider ways to verify their findings.

For more information on the craft of writing history, see Louis Gottschalk, Understanding History, A Primer on Historical Method (New York: Knopf, 1950) and Jacques Barzun and Henry F. Graff, The Modern Researcher (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1977).

What do students gain from such experiences? They learn how to collaborate with their peers, how to interview people, how to take photographs and judge them, how to communicate information in writing, how to plan and carry out research activities, how to evaluate reports, and how to produce a publication. These students would also learn much about their community and its development, as well as learn to appreciate those sources of their information, the senior citizens of their locality.

In Missouri, there are at least four shool districts that have oral history projects: Lebanon, which produces an oral history magazine called *Bittersweet;* Webster Groves, which produces the magazine *In Retrospect: Webster Groves, Missouri;* Trenton, which produces the magazine *Time Was;* and Lonedell, which has a three year Title IV-C oral history project called *In Our Own Back Yard.* The Lonedell project produced a newsletter and 8mm film during its first year (1978-79).

(Relevant objectives will depend on how this activity is implemented. See specific objectives under these goals in Chapter V: I A-G; II A-G; III A-D; IV A; VIII.)

Activity 28: Collecting Data, Graphing It, and Drawing Inferences

Have students keep records of changes in certain statistics to determine trends and try to understand their causes. Each student is given responsibility for a different item and keeps records of it. Possible items could be prices of tomatoes, hamburger, gasoline, oranges, orange juice; student attendance; temperature; and precipitation. Once students have collected data for a few weeks, they could be asked to devise a way to show their data. Before they make their final decisions, show them a variety of types of graphs and charts. Have them continue keeping their records during a long period of time. Students could report their findings, offer hypotheses for the trends, and explore their hypotheses by interviewing people with expertise. Finally, students could be encouraged to speculate on whether one trend seems related to other trends.

Many newspapers include graphs students could examine.

(Relevant objectives depend on how this activity is implemented. See specific objectives under these goals in Chapter V: I D; II A, B; III B-D; IV A, B.)

Activity 29: Statistics as Springboards for Thinking

Statistics are easy to find in public libraries—in documents of federal, state, and local governments, in United Nations documents, in almanacs, in business reports, in newspapers, and in news magazines. Two rich sources of statistics on the United States are *Historical Statistics of the United States, Colonial Times to 1970* and *Statistical Abstracts of the United States,* both of which are produced by the United States Department of Commerce.

Such sources may be used to make comparisons and determine trends in a

variety of categories. Since there are many ways to use statistical tables in classrooms, the suggestions that follow are only a sample of the possibilities.

1. Become familiar with sources of statistics in school and local libraries, and find statistical tables related to courses and units being taught. For example, statistics on crime, numbers of law suits, and divorces might all be used in an elective course "You and the Law."
2. Decide whether students should examine specific statistical tables in class discussions, small-group discussions, or individualized study packets.
3. Help students learn some basics of reading tables, such as using the title to determine the scope of the table and examining the margin headings, footnotes, and details in column headings.
4. Sequence questions to facilitate productive thinking about statistical tables. Here is one example of a possible sequence of questions that might be used.
   - *To help students read the table:*
     (1) Looking at the title of this table, what do you think we might be able to learn from it?
     (2) Look at the headings for each column. What does the heading mean in the first column? . . . in the second column? . . .
     (3) Look at the headings for each row. What does the heading in the first row mean? . . . in the second row? . . .
     (4) Point to one statistic in the table. Have students explain what it means using the row and column headings. For example, "The statistic 4,088,000 is the number of Americans in the labor force over 16 years old who were unemployed in 1970."
   - *To help students draw inferences:*
     (5) What major changes or trends do you find in this table?
   - *To help students consider the human significance of the trends in the data:*
     (6) What difference would the change [or trend] make in the daily lives of people?
   - *To help students explain (hypothesize) reasons for trends:*
     (7) Given what we have studied about this topic, why do you think there was a major change at the time you pointed out? . . . How do you explain this trend?
   - *To help students evaluate their hypotheses:*
     (8) What kind of information (data or evidence) would support or weaken this hypothesis?
     (9) Where could we get that information?
5. Other strategies may be considered.
   - Have students convert tables to another graphic form such as graphs.
   - Have students examine different tables that may be related to each other. For example, in a study of the Great Depression, one may use tables that contain statistics on U.S. Gross National Product, unemployment, and personal consumption patterns to look for cause-and-effect relationships (see *Historical Statistics of the United States, Colonial Times to 1970*, 1975, pp. 135, 224, and 319).
   - Encourage students to apply math skills (and calculators) to statistical information. For example, if in 1976 the U.S. population was 220 million and the rate of growth was 1.2% per year, what would be the U.S. population in the year 2000? The same questions could be asked of China (population was 942 million; growth rate 2.4%) or of Mexico (population was 60 million; growth rate 2.4%). Or if a table shows area and population, the density of population (people per square mile) could be determined.

- Sometimes, statistics could be shown dramatically using students and classroom props:

Example 1. Changes in Employment, 1920's and 1930's. In a class of 25 students, give each student who enters the classroom a number (1 through 25). Show on an overhead projector the percentage of unemployed in 1926 (2%), in 1927 (3%), in 1928 (4%), in 1929 (3%), in 1930 (9%), in 1931 (16%), in 1932 (24%), in 1933 (25%), and so on. Beginning with 1926, figure how many people out of 25 on the average would be unemployed. (At 2%, zero to one person would be unemployed.) Thus, at most, have Student #1 leave his seat and stand by the chalkboard. In 1927, 1928, and 1929, only that one student would remain at the chalkboard. He may be asked what problems he feels he is having as an unemployed person. In 1930 unemployment increases to 9%. Thus, now Student #2 should be asked to join Student #1. In 1931, Students #3, and #4 would join Students #1 and #2 in the unemployed ranks. In 1932 and 1933, six students in all would be out of work. Students could be interviewed to get their reactions to how their lives had been changed by unemployment or by the fact that fewer people can now afford to buy goods and services.

Example 2. Comparing Areas and Populations to Missouri. Consider these statistics:

	Population (in millions)	Area (in sq. mi.)
Japan	115	144,000
Missouri	5	70,000

Tell students you will use one desk to represent 10,000 square miles. How many desks will be needed for Japan? How many will be needed for Missouri? Next, set on opposing sides of the room the fourteen desks for Japan and the seven desks for Missouri. Ask students which place is bigger? . . . How many times as big as Missouri is Japan?

Next, indicate that one person will be needed to represent every five million people. How many people would be needed to represent Missouri? Ask for a volunteer to sit on one of the seven Missouri desks. He or she alone would fully represent Missouri's population. After the Missouri student is seated, ask the class how many people are needed to represent Japan's 115 million people. (Twenty-three students would be needed.) Again, get volunteers. This time, twenty-three students will need to try to sit on the 14 desks representing Japan's area!

Given the above experience, students should be in a good position to compare Japan's area, population, and population density to Missouri's. They should also be in a good position to speculate on social implications.

Relevant objectives depend upon what content is emphasized and how this activity is implemented. See specific objectives under these goals: I A-F; II D, G; III A-C; IV A, B.)

Activity 30: Activities Related To Change

One of the constants of human living is change. The ideas that follow are a few of the many possibilities for how students might study about change in human society:

- Students could read biographies of famous people and be charged with the

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task of finding how they changed over the course of their lives.

- Students could study change in their locality by collecting photographs and interviewing parents, business people, and senior citizens. Copies of old newspapers could be examined to get more insights. The book *Diary of America* by Josef and Dorothy Berger (1957) includes primary source material on changes that have occurred in a number of places. That book might suggest questions for students to explore and also help place in broader perspective changes in the students' localities.
- Students could study changes in technology and their implications. Photographs and real artifacts could be examined to trace the origins, functions, and impact of the specific tools of technology.
- Students could study changes in law (e.g. in criminal law, in law to protect consumers, etc.) and the impact of those changes.
- Students could observe, record, and analyze changes going on around them, in their homes, schools, classrooms, and communities. They could consider what factors are causing the changes and what outcomes are likely to follow.
- Students could examine old mail order catalogues to find products no longer used, and examine new mail order catalogues to find products now available that were not available or useable a given number of years ago. They should consider implications of such changes on people's freedoms, opportunities, styles of living, careers, and perspectives.

For additional ideas related to teaching about change, see Muessig and Rogers (1965), Kownslar (1974), and Leinwand (1978).

A useful bibliography about books on the law is Bibliography of Law-Related Curriculum Materials: Annotated (Second Edition) *developed by the Special Committee on Youth Education for Citizenship (American Bar Association, 1155 East 60th Street, Chicago, Ill. 60637).*

(Relevant objectives would depend upon the specific content and how this activity is implemented. See specific objectives under these goals in Chapter V: I A-G; II A-G; III A-D; IV A, B; VI A; VIII.)

Activity 31: What Future?

There was a time when the world's human population was much smaller than it is now, when people could live their day-to-day lives without worrying much about the future. If wood was needed for a fire, all one had to do was leave his cave and fetch the wood. More wood would be available tomorrow, the day after tomorrow, and for the lifetime of that family, its children, grandchildren, and great grandchildren.

We now know that those days are over. To take all the wood we need without any other considerations could deplete our forests and lead to numerous negative consequences. Wood is no longer a cheap commodity. In fact, many resources that we and our predecessors considered cheap can no longer be viewed that way.

These ideas have implications for social studies education. They tell us that economic thinking is becoming a necessity for social survival.

Two terms need definitions: "economic thinking" and "social survival." "Economic thinking" here means dealing rationally with the problem of scarcity, with being able to make sound choices when there are not enough goods and services to go around to everyone. Such thinking implies that the individual be able to define the particular economic problem, relate that problem to other matters, and suggest and evaluate solutions. Evaluating solutions rationally has two aspects: to identify the *opportunity costs* (the price we pay not only in cash, but in lost opportunities to use resources for other desired purposes) and to relate solutions to social values like freedom, equality, justice, economic stability, and economic growth. See *Part I, A*

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Framework for Teaching Economics: Basic Concepts, written by Hansen, et al., 1977.

The term "social survival" in this case refers to the human species continuing to live on this globe in a manner consistent with basic human dignity (see p. 32). It seems unlikely that such social survival will happen automatically. Individuals and leaders of political and economic institutions will need to think carefully about long-term consequences of their decisions and assume responsibility for them.

What will the future be like? What sort of future do we want? What conditions of today will limit or expand our options in the future? Dealing with such questions seems appropriate in a democracy where people are to be self-governing. The failure of education to help people face such questions could doom us to accepting whatever future comes, regardless of its qualities.

How does a teacher build future-related thinking into social studies? The following are a few suggestions that may fit in some social studies programs:

- Consider alternative scenarios for the future using science fiction. For a listing of possible books, see *Your Reading, A Booklist for Junior High Students* (Walker, 1975), *Books for You, a Booklist for Senior High Students* (Donelson, 1976), *High Interest Easy Reading for Junior and Senior High* (White, 1979), and *Social Studies School Service Catalogue:* Different students could read different books, describe the type of future the book suggests, and identify what they would like or dislike about the kind of future the book depicts.
- Extrapolate from current trends. Using statistical tables found in *Statistical Abstracts of the United States* or from almanacs, hypothesize that those trends will continue or become more pronounced. Consider the implications of those trends for human living in the future: What problems or opportunities will accompany the trend? What decisions will individuals, businesses, and government have to make that relate directly to the trend? Who should make such decisions? Are current means of making decisions with wide social implications adequate to deal with these problems?
- Consider inventions of the past and the consequences they have had. For example, one Missouri teacher has had students list all the jobs they know about that are a result of the invention of the automobile. Within an hour, students are able to think of over 50 jobs. One could also have students look for new inventions in newspapers and magazines, discuss whether they feel those inventions will have a major impact on people's lives, consider the short- and long-range consequences, and consider implications for one's life plans.
- Interview business people, labor leaders, school superintendents, and other adults to learn if they plan for the future and how they do so. Some companies must do long-range planning for participating in a global economy. Companies such as McDonnell-Douglas, Monsanto Chemical Company, Ralston Purina, or Hallmark could be contacted to find out who has responsibility for long-range planning, to invite someone from that office to school or have students visit him or her, and to investigate why the company must do long-range planning, how it does so, and what kinds of experience and education the planning staff has had.
- Invite a panel of professional people, such as a lawyer or judge, a physician, a banker, and an engineer, to discuss with the class some of the changes that are occurring in their fields and what changes they expect in the future. Do those changes pose any significant social questions for society to grapple with in the future?
- A number of commercial simulation activities pertain to future studies. Contact ERIC/Chess, 855 Broadway, Boulder, Colorado 80302 to request copies of *Keeping Up* or *Reference Sheets* relevant to future studies. Those

publications list sources of information on simulations and on books and other resources.

(Relevant objectives depend upon how this activity is implemented. See specific objectives under these goals in Chapter V: I A-G; II A, B, D, F; III A-D; IV A, B; V A-C; VI A).

Activity 32: Productive Work in the Classroom

Students may learn at an early age about the production of goods and services to satisfy people's wants. Students could be asked to list goods (apples, automobiles, combs, etc.) and services (haircuts, circuses, teaching, etc.) Each item named could be written on a card. They could then sort cards by the categories "goods" or "services."

Students could then be asked what types of services could be carried out in their classroom to help make things go better or look better. These could be listed. The list may include clean the blackboard, pick up paper, collect homework papers, help make certain students complete their work on time, and others. The teacher and students could invent titles for each responsibility. Students could then be asked to volunteer for the various jobs. If there are more volunteers than there are jobs, the students will then be confronted with a major economic fact of life—scarcity.

Dealing with the problem of scarcity could be handled in many ways. The following way of handling it should help students clarify their notions of fairness and help them learn how to make rules in a meeting. The teacher could tell the students that he or she could assign jobs, but that there is another way, a way they are now old enough to do. They could make the rules for how jobs will be allocated. The teacher could call for students to suggest procedures. The procedures suggested should be listed before they are discussed. Once the procedures are listed, students could present reasons for and against each suggestion. The final decision could be made by voting.

Often suggested rules relate well to democratic values like equal opportunity, freedom (from complex restrictions), and predictability. In discussing the rules, the teacher should encourage students to listen to others and may occasionally comment on how a particular alternative relates to one of those values.

Once rules are made, they need to be carried out. The teacher or a student officer should assume responsibility to make certain things work well, or, if problems develop, raise the question of whether the rules need changing.

Failure of a student to carry out a responsibility or absence of a student who has a responsibility presents an opportunity for the class to consider what consequences follow when a service is not carried out and what might be done to deal with that problem. Analogies could also be made to the adult world of work: 'What would happen if I, your teacher, would decide to go fishing tomorrow and not show up at school?" "What would happen if a doctor decides not to show up at his office?"

(Relevant objectives depend upon how this activity is implemented. See specific objectives under these goals in Chapter V: I A, D; VI A, B; VIII.)

Activity 33: Creating a Classroom or School Constitution

As a classroom activity students could hold a constitutional convention to formulate a constitution for the classroom. Sections of the constitution could deal with these topics:

- The machinery of government (Who does what?)
- Methods of selecting officers
- Powers of officers
- Rights of students
- Ways to change the constitution

This activity could be related to the Constitutional Convention of the United States in 1787 or the Constitutional Convention in Missouri in 1820.

Of course, drafting a constitution is only one step toward orderly government. There is much to be learned from attempts to apply it in different situations (interpreting the law).

A variation on this activity would be to draft a constitution for the school.

(Relevant objectives depend on how this activity is implemented. See specific objectives under these goals in Chapter V: I E, F; V A-C; VI A, B; VIII.)

Activity 34: Simulation Activities

The complexities of human behavior and of political, economic, and social systems may be explained to students in carefully prepared lectures. Students may experience those complexities, however, through the use of simulations. They may, for example, learn about work on an assembly line by producing products in the classroom using an assembly line; they may learn about the problems of family budgeting by taking roles as members of a hypothetical family and planning a budget for that family using given data, or they may learn about the difficulties of getting a bill through Congress by participating in a mock legislature.

In simulation *games* students seek to accomplish specific goals using resources like money, property, legal power, or expertise that they have or can gain. Simulation games may involve all sorts of relationships, such as those among parents and children, employers and employees, lobbyists and legislators, and elected officials and their constituencies. Many simulation games have been developed commercially; some teachers make their own.

Simulation Games, Design and Implementation by Maidment and Bronstein (Merrill, 1973) discusses pros and cons of the teacher developing his or her own simulations, describes how to develop a simulation, presents a simulation relating to pollution, and lists simulations and books and articles on simulations in a bibliography. The *Data Book* of the Social Science Education Consortium (see Appendix for its address) lists and describes many more simulations, as does the *Social Studies School Services Catalogue*. Finally, the January, 1980, issue of *Social Education* has several activities on simulations. Simulations may be used in a variety of courses, with a variety of age groups, to accomplish a variety of objectives.

(Relevant objectives depend on the specific simulations used and how they are implemented. For specific objectives, see each of the goals.)

Activity 35: Open-Ended Questions in History

Teachers who require students to memorize the causes and results of events could, unwittingly, be encouraging their students to be "hindsight thinkers." Such people tend to conclude in *post hoc, ergo propter hoc* manner that if Event A preceded Event B, Event A *caused* Event B. Moreover,

"We are, all of us, in the position of the reader of mystery stories who reads the last chapter first. But we should remember that we do not know how our history is going to come out, and neither did earlier generations of men."

Henry Steele Commager

having knowledge of what events followed various decisions, such people are swift in making harsh, glib judgments of the decision makers. (For example: A baseball manager brought in a pinch hitter, who subsequently struck out. Other managers, given the same situation, might have brought in the same pinch hitter; yet the "hindsight thinker" concludes, after the pinch hitter struck out, that the manager was stupid.) Such simpleminded thinking is certainly not the kind of judgment needed by citizens in a democracy. Certainly citizens need to be concerned with consequences of decisions; yet they also must appreciate the fact that decision makers do not have crystal balls.

History can be taught in ways that will not promote hindsight thinking, in ways that will help students understand and appreciate the complex issues that decision makers of the past had to deal with. Role play and simulation activities may be used for such purposes.

A teacher who wants to develop such activities may proceed as follows:

1. Identify the decision and decision maker (e.g., Shall I approve the use of the Atomic Bomb in Japan?/Truman; Shall I bring my family to the United States?/Irish father in 1846; Shall I try to escape to Canada?/slave, 1852.)
2. Identify what information the decision maker would have had, as well as the information he or she would not have had.
3. Identify individuals who would have tried to influence the decision maker. What were their relationships to the decision maker, their frames of reference, their objectives, their arguments? Prepare a 3 x 5 card of such information for each person.
4. Decide on a setting in which the decision maker and the advisors could meet (e.g., the President calls a Cabinet meeting; the family is having supper; the Chief Justice calls to order the meeting of Supreme Court justices; the slaves talk quietly while they work.)
5. Assign roles to students, giving each student a 3 x 5 card of information for his or her role. Orient students to the setting, organizing the room and providing props that would help students imagine the setting in the classroom.
6. Have students enact the role play. After the various points of view are clearly expressed, stop the role play and discuss with students what would they decide if they were the decision maker. Such discussions could be carried out in small groups followed by total class discussion, or could be carried out as a total class discussion. When the latter approach is used, the teacher may want to encourage many students to express their ideas at first. Later, after it becomes clear what decision most students would take, the teacher might assume a devil's advocate role, challenging students. In such discussions opposing points of view should be brought out, and students should be encouraged to respond to each other; yet students should be pressed to make decisions, for failure to make a decision is itself a decision that has consequences.
7. Following the role play and decision making discussion, discuss the activity with students. One question that should be emphasized is that of whether the decision was an easy one to make.

Such activities could readily be developed by teachers who read and exploit in-depth histories and historical novels for such purposes. Such activities are described for teachers in the chapter "Suggested Methods for Teachers" by Raymond Muessig and Vincent Rogers, found in Henry Steele Commager's book *The Nature and Study of History.*

Another way to involve students in discussion of open-ended questions is to show films involving human decisions and stopping the projector just

before the decision is made. Students could be assigned roles and asked to act out what they think will happen next.

(Relevant objectives depend upon the specific questions dealt with and how they are handled. For specific objectives see goals I A-G; II B; V A, B, C; VI A, B; VII A, B, C; VIII.)

Activity 36: Decision-Making Activities

Freedom and decision making by individuals go hand in hand in democracies. Making sound decisions is often a complex matter, involving defining problems, recognizing what values are involved and in conflict, determining the probable truth of factual claims, defining terms, identifying subissues, relating subissues to the main issue(s), determining one's priorities, projecting consequences, and making a decision with full consideration of such matters. Making sound decisions involves both one's feelings and one's intellect.

Although social studies teachers in a free society should refrain from indoctrinating students with their personal viewpoints, they have a constructive role to play in helping students develop competencies related to decision making and in helping students understand the different positions people take in matters of social controversy. To help students develop skills in making decisions requires that teachers understand what constitutes effectiveness in making decisions. The ideas that follow and the references at the end of this activity are designed to provide some background knowledge for teachers whose prior study has been limited in this area.

What kinds of decisions can students deal with? Even elementary students can deal with social issues, if by social issues we refer to decisions that have consequences that may affect other people. Here are some examples:

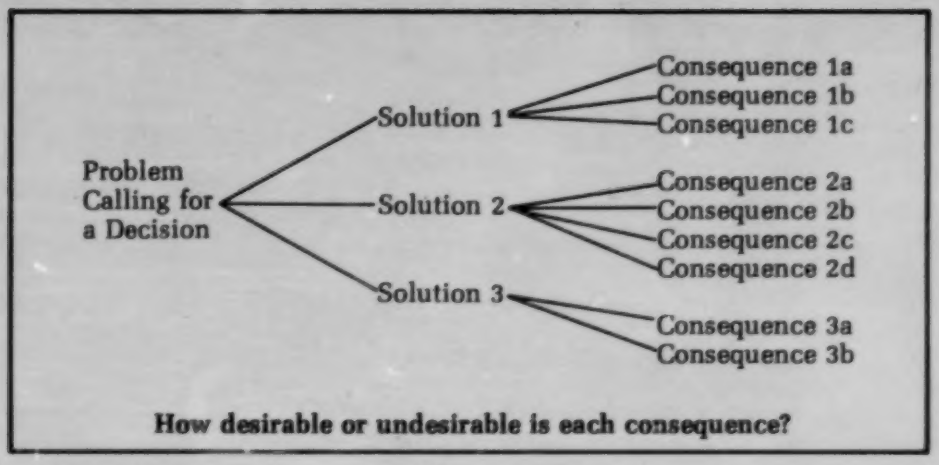
- Should the school cafeteria sell candy in the lunch line? (Values in conflict are freedom of choice vs. the health of the students.)
- Should a local community rezone an area that is residential to one that is commercial? (Property rights vs. general welfare of community)
- Should a school playground have detailed rules about how it is to be used or should it have no rules? (Safety vs. student freedom of choice)
- Should members of a club have to pay dues?
- Who should make the rules in a school club? How should the rules be made?
- What responsibilities do children have to their families?

Decision-making discussions usually involve students most when the situation is presented as a concrete case. Excellent sources of such situations may be found in playground disputes, the news media, literature, instructional television, films, and filmstrips. (One source of films and filmstrips is The Missouri Bar, P. O. Box 119, Jefferson City, Missouri 65102.)

To find sources in literature see Book Review Committee of the National Council for the Social Studies (annual), Cianciolo (1977), Donelson (1976), Walker (1975), and White (1972).

How should decision discussions be conducted? There is no single way to conduct a decision discussion. One approach is listed below:

1. *Help students define the problem* (i.e., what is the decision that must be made?).
2. *Help students propose alternative solutions to the problem.*
3. *Help students predict consequences of alternative solutions.*



4. *Help students make decisions.*
5. *Help students discuss and defend decisions.*

Students will learn about the complexities of the decision situation when teachers use such strategies as these:

- Have students assume roles that are new to them. Make certain they understand what the role involves. For example, if students are discussing whether or not certain private property should be condemned to make space for a park and swimming pool, have some (or all) students imagine they live in the houses to be condemned or that they represent that part of town in the city council. Other students (or all students at a different time) should imagine they are city residents who would want such a park for various specific reasons. Students could interview adults and ask them how they would feel to have a park near their house or how they would feel to have their house condemned for a park.
- Have them identify the conflicting values. In this case, property rights of a few seem to be in conflict with the general welfare of all. Help students understand how both of those values are important to them. For example: How would they feel if someone would take property from them that they treasure, such as their cat, dog, bicycle or room? On the other hand, how would they feel if no one looks after the general welfare, if streets are allowed to deteriorate, if hospitals and schools are closed?
- Encourage students to listen and respond to each other.
- Help students understand the nature of their disagreements. For example, they may have these types of disagreements:

Disagreements over facts:

"Nobody would use the park, since there are other parks in town."
"I disagree."
How could students try to reach an agreement on this dispute?

Disagreements over definitions or laws:

"Your plan denies some people their property rights."
"What does 'property rights' mean?"
"'Property rights' refers to the rights to own and keep property under all circumstances."
"I disagree. People have the right to property, but not under *all* circumstances."
How could students try to reach an agreement on this dispute?

Disagreements over values:

"It is not fair to take the homes of those people."
"But it is less fair for those people to prevent community progress."

"I disagree. This country should stand for the rights of the individual."
How could students try to reach an agreement on this issue?

- Help students resolve disputes like those above. For example, they could poll people in the case of the *factual dispute*, or if the case is not a real one, the teacher could have students flip a coin to determine the position of the community (i.e., heads means people would use the park; tails means people would not use the park). In the case of the *definitional/legal question*, they could get the advice of an attorney. In the case of the *value question* they could consider similar cases and see if their analysis suggests principles that could be used to help settle such a dispute. Here are some similar cases:

1. A town has many accidents where a street goes around a house like this:

Lives could be saved if the state buys the home and straightens out the street.

2. A city needs a new school. Much gasoline could be saved if the school is built in a central location. Should the local government be able to buy up the homes in that location to build the school?
3. A group of citizens wants to have space on their block for a flower garden; yet all lots have houses on them. Those citizens ask the city to buy one of the houses on the block to make it into a park that they could use for their garden; yet the Freiheit family, who lives on the lot those citizens want for the park, loves their house and does not want to sell it.
4. The Unique family loves music and animals. They are careful not to play their music too loud or to allow their pets to disturb their neighbors in any way. Still, the people in the neighborhood decide they do not want strange people like the Uniques living on their block. They ask the city to force the Uniques to sell their home so someone who is not different could move there.

Students could place each of the four cases on a continuum like the one below:

Not acceptable to take the property	**Acceptable to take the property**

Finally, ask the students where they would place the case they have been discussing on the continuum above. Students still may not agree with each other. The aim in this case, however, is to help them clarify their thinking, not to reach unanimous agreement.

NOTE: Several excellent books have been written on decision making in social studies. The following are a few:

Fraenkel, Jack R. *How to Teach about Values, An Analytic Approach.* Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1977.

Galbraith, Ronald E., and Thomas M. Jones. *Moral Reasoning.* Minneapolis, MN: Greenhaven, 1976.

LaRaus, Roger, and Richard Remy. *Citizenship Decision Making: Skills, Activities, and Materials, Grades 4-9.* Reading, MA: Addison Wesley, 1978.

Newmann, Fred M., and Donald W. Oliver. *Clarifying Public Controversy: An Approach to Teaching Social Studies.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1966.

Shaver, James P., and A. Guy Larkins. *Instructor's Manual: The Analysis of Public Issues Program.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1973.

Shaver, James P., and William Strong. *Facing Value Decisions: Rationale Building for Teachers.* Belmont, CA: Wadsworth, 1976.

(Relevant objectives depend on the specific problem dealt with and how it is handled. See especially specific objectives under V A, B, C.)

Activity 37: Philosophizing about my Teaching

This activity is for teachers, not students; yet it could benefit students more than the preceding 36 activities. It may be carried out in discussions at school faculty meetings or it could be carried out at home or under a tree—some place where one could simply stop and think.

The activity involves two steps: (a) thinking of questions that cause one to reflect on assumptions and approaches to teaching and (b) trying to answer those questions. Below are examples of such questions. Space is provided for readers to list additional questions of their own:

- Is there a body of knowledge and a set of competencies that all Americans should have?
- What do I teach that is important for students and society?
- Am I teaching in such a way that what is important is what I emphasize?
- Do my students grasp the importance of what we are studying?
- What is the difference between "education" and "training"? Am I mostly an educator or a trainer?
- Am I using a variety of kinds of activities and providing students with alternative ways of learning so that everyone has opportunities to experience success in my classroom?
- Are my students learning important concepts, facts, and generalizations *and* powerful ways of thinking *and* how to study *and* how to work with others *and* how to make decisions and carry out responsibilities *and* . . . . ?
- Do my students seem intrigued by what we are studying? . . . about this world of humanity?
- Are my students learning to think for themselves, to be able to contribute to the solution of social problems?
- Am I teaching students to accept my personal value judgments? Is that all right for a public school educator? Why? Why not? When? When not?
- Are my students getting an opportunity to be creative? Are their talents blossoming in my classroom?

- Do my students like to share ideas? Do they listen well? Do they understand and seek to understand different viewpoints as one way to clarify their own positions?
- Am I helping students feel good about themselves, about me, about each other?
- Are my students thinking seriously about responsibilities they have or will assume, as family members, as husbands or wives as parents, as workers, as consumers, as citizens in the community, state, and nation, as a member of humanity?
- Can my students keep problems in perspective? Do they in their unique ways have a sense of humor?
- Am I responding to questions raised by students with genuine interest, helping them find accurate answers?
- What sort of example do I set for my students regarding learning? Am I an example of a person who is an authority or expert on what I teach? Am I an example of a person who does not pretend to have all answers, who quests for truth, who loves learning, who is a life-long student? What type of example do I want to set?
- Are the above questions important? Are they the questions I should be asking? Do they reflect concerns teachers in a democracy should have? What are some other questions I ought to ask?

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Chapter VIII
Selecting Instructional Materials

On the first day of Economics 101 at Any University, U.S.A., Professor Malthus began his lecture as follows:

> "People cannot have everything they want. They must make choices, *and their choices involve giving up the opportunity to choose other things (opportunity costs).* Such is the nature of economic decision making. Economic decisions are made every day by all sorts of people, from preschool children to the President of the United States."

A corollary to Dr. Malthus's statement is that social studies teachers also make economic decisions, including that of what instructional materials to use. Moreover, social studies teachers, like other people, can make their decisions rationally or irrationally. This chapter is based on the assumption that decisions about instructional materials should be rational.

For example, if one set of instructional materials is used, the opportunity cost is that the ideas and skills developed in another set of materials might not be taught.

Characteristics of rational decisions

Rational decision making involves a five-step process:

(1) Defining the Problem.
(2) Identifying and Obtaining Alternatives.
(3) Stating and Weighing Criteria.
(4) Evaluating Alternatives.
(5) Making a Decision.

The five-step process should not be followed in rigid order. What is important is that each of the five steps in the process be given sufficient emphasis when making decisions in matters of importance.

This chapter relates to the selection of social studies materials. The Department of Elementary and Secondary Education has produced the publication "Recommended Guidelines for Textbook Selection, Policies and Procedures." Order a free copy from the Curriculum Services Office of the Department.

Applying rational decision-making processes to selecting instructional materials

Defining the problem

The local staff will need to deal with questions such as these in defining the problem: What kind of material are they considering for purchase (K-6 textbook series, textbook for a single course, supplementary materials, filmstrips, videotapes, etc.)? Do they plan to order a single book or use a multi-text approach? What is the nature of the target group? What are the cost constraints?

Examples of problem definitions are:

1. To select a single textbook series for grades 1-6.
2. To select a textbook for a senior high school elective course in economics.
3. To select a variety of textbooks and trade books for a course in world history to be taught to a group of heterogeneous tenth graders. (The amount of expenditures must be under $15.00 per student.)
4. To obtain free or inexpensive materials that are objective that may be used in a consumer economics course.

Consider this comment by a Missouri social studies teacher: "With differences in reading abilities, and learning abilities, teachers need a variety of text and printed materials. Mainstreaming and multi-level classes are posing real problems to the teacher with one basic text." See Chapter VII, pp. 107-108, for a discussion of how to use a multi-text approach.

Listing and obtaining alternatives

A host of textbooks and supplementary materials could be used in social studies classrooms. A rational approach to selecting materials would be to identify and obtain sample copies of all appropriate alternative materials, where practicable.

There are several ways to find available materials:

1. Attend the annual convention of the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) or the nearest regional meeting of NCSS and visit the book and film displays. The annual convention is a November event, usually during Thanksgiving week, whereas regional meetings occur in March or April. One may examine books in the display booths and request sample copies of books when textbook adoptions are coming up. These meetings offer the largest displays of social studies resource materials in the nation.
2. Attend a fall state teacher's meeting and visit displays at these meetings. Although not as extensive for social studies as those at the NCSS Conventions, these displays are useful.
3. Obtain (by purchase or borrowing) the *Social Studies Curriculum Materials Data Book*. The *Data Book* contains over 500 two page analyses of social studies materials. Sections on social studies projects, textbooks, supplementary materials, games and simulations, and teacher resources are included. This reference is useful in identifying and selecting new materials.

   Each data sheet includes an overview of the most significant features of the material; specific descriptions of format, elements, and cost; time required to implement the material; characteristics required of both student and teacher; rationale and general objectives; descriptions of content and an analysis of input from the various social sciences; explanations of teaching and gaming procedures; and evaluation data. They are cross-referenced in numerous ways.

   Bound in three loose-leaf notebooks, the *Data Book* is kept current by annual supplements. The *Data Book* costs $75.00 for the three-volume set and $10.00 for annual supplements. It is produced by the Social Science Education Consortium, (SSEC).
4. Obtain other bibliographies of instructional materials. The SSEC has bibliographies for specific areas, including ethnic studies, U. S. history, the humanities, future studies, environmental education, economics and geography, and others. Write SSEC to obtain bibliographies in areas of interest or to obtain information about bibliographies produced by other groups like the Center for Global Perspectives, the Joint Council on Economic Education, and the American Bar Association. SSEC is responsible for ERIC/CHESS, the Educational Resources Information Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education).
5. To find materials too new to be on bibliographies scan the advertisements in *Social Education* magazine, the journal of the National Council for the Social Studies.
6. Write textbook publishers for their social studies catalogues and for appropriate sample materials. A list of addresses of members of the Missouri Textbook Publishers Association may be found in the *Missouri School Directory*, published annually by the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education and mailed automatically to all superintendents, assistant superintendents, and building principals. *In addition, a listing of textbooks offered for sale in Missouri may be found in the publication* Textbook List and Prices *filed with the Missouri State Board of Education.*

Stating and weighing criteria

A textbook selection committee was seated at a table reviewing a dozen U.S. history textbooks. Each teacher seemed to prefer a different book. How will the committee judge the books? Listen to what the members said:

Mr. Rock: This book, *America's Traditions*, looks excellent. Its binding ing should last forever.

Mr. Straitfax: It also is very factual, and it doesn't ask students to make decisions when they don't know the facts.

Ms. Provok: But I want students to do some thinking. *America's Traditions* only asks students to memorize. Look at this book, *Conflict in American History*. It should really challenge students.

Mr. Coddle: Yes, challenge them too much! It's written on a college level. None of our kids could read a page without a dictionary at hand, and they are too lazy to use dictionaries. We ought to use this book, *Basic American History for Basic Students*.

Ms. Place: I don't like *Basic American History*. It emphasizes history too much and includes no maps. It's very weak on geography.

Mr.Concern: I think . . . .

Social studies textbooks vary in more ways than size of print and cover design. They are based on a variety of assumptions about the purposes of education, about how values should be handled, about what students should learn and how they should learn.

Needless to say, such a textbook committee would have difficulty reaching an agreement. A useful exercise at this point is to "brainstorm" criteria for textbook selection. Rules of brainstorming are:

Rules of Brainstorming

1. Saying anything that comes to mind is okay.
2. Discussing other people's statements is *not* okay.
3. Evaluating or criticizing other people's statements is *not* okay.
4. Repeating someone else's idea is okay.
5. "Piggybacking" on someone else's idea is okay—that is, it is permissible to add to or slightly change someone else's suggestion.
6. Silence is okay.
7. Even if you think you are finished, keep on going for awhile.

(Wangen and Kissock, 1977, p. H-4)

Examples of criteria that might emerge from brainstorming would include:

- Appropriate reading level.
- Teacher's guide with good ideas.
- Relates well to district social studies objectives.
- Consistency with current scholarship.
- Multicultural and global emphasis—absence of stereotypes.
- Student activity emphasis.
- Maps, charts, and tables.
- Emphasis on inquiry methods.

The list would be longer, especially if Rule #7 is taken seriously. In fact, a serious effort ought to be made to make certain no important criteria are left out. One approach to doing this ought to be to examine relevant publications that could sensitize a faculty to what to look for in text materials. A few examples follow:

Educational Research Service, Inc., *Procedures for Textbook and Instructional Materials Selection*. Arlington, VA: Educational Research Service, Inc., 1976 (ERS, 1815 North Fort Myer Drive, Arlington, VA 22209. Cost: $10.00.)

Planning a Social Studies Program: Activities, Guidelines, and Resources, edited by James E. Davis and Francis Haley. (ERIC/CHESS and Social Science Education Consortium, SSEC. Order SSEC Publication No. 224. Cost: $14.50.)

Handbook for Departmental Leadership in the Social Studies, prepared by the staff of the Social Studies Diffusion Project with support from the Ford Foundation. (Available from SSEC. Order SSEC Publication No. 201. Cost: $10.00.)

Curriculum Materials Analysis System, Short Form or *Curriculum Analysis System, Long Form*. (Available from SSEC. Order SSEC Publications 145-Short Form or 143-Long Form. Cost: $1.50 or $4.50 respectively.)

See also pp. 176-180. The guidelines could be converted to a checklist by using these directions: (A) Circle H. P. if the guidelines is a high priority item for any textbook you would consider choosing. (B) For each item circle: (1) if this textbook meets the criterion excellently. (2) if this textbook meets the criterion adequately. (3) if this textbook does not meet this criterion adequately.

"Social Studies Curriculum Guidelines." *Social Education* (April, 1979) Vol. 43, No. 4. National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) (Cost: $4.00.)

Curriculum Guidelines for Multiethnic Education, Position Statement, by NCSS. (Cost: $2.50.)

International Learning and International Education in a Global Age, by NCSS. (Cost: $5.50.)

Asia in American Textbooks, by Asia Society.

Economics in Social Studies Textbooks by Joint Council on Economic Education. (For list of most up-to-date booklets in this series write JCCE for its free *Checklist*, which lists all JCCE publications.)

"*Recommended Guidelines for Textbook Selection, Policies, and Procedures*," by Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education.

Stereotypes, Distortions and Omissions in U.S. History Textbooks, by Council on Interracial Books for Children. This organization reviews books in its newsletters.

Once criteria are listed, determine the importance of the various criteria. Each criterion could be graded as follows:

2 = Essential
1 = Important
0 = Unimportant

Evaluating alternatives

There are two steps to evaluating the alternatives: becoming familiar with the material and judging the material.

Social studies textbooks vary considerably in their purposes.

Becoming familiar with the material. Often a faculty will purchase a textbook, series, or kit and later find out that it has some undesirable qualities. ("These books are sure weak on geography!" "My kids cannot comprehend this textbook!" "This book is short on basic information!" "Some of the information in this book is inaccurate!" "This book reinforces stereotypes!") It is essential to become familiar with the material *before* purchasing it. Such advice, of course, applies to any major consumer decision.

There are several ways to become familiar with material. Those listed here begin with superficial procedures and move to ways that are more comprehensive:

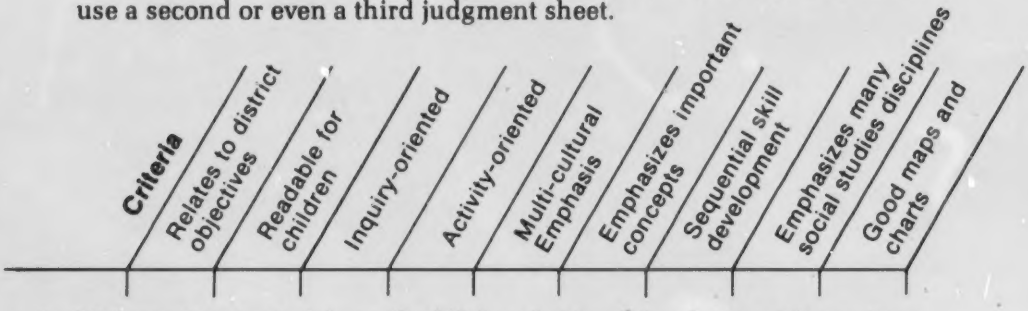
1. In the case of a book, examine the book by reading parts of it. Focus on the title page, noting the authors, the title, and the copyright date. Read the preface and introduction to the teacher's guide to find out about the intended audience for the book and about the book's rationale (goals and basic assumptions on which the book is based). Examine the table of contents, read sample parts of the book, examine illustrations, and examine activities and material to accompany the book. In the case of other material—film, filmstrips, and kits—other procedures would be necessary.
2. Examine the material using appropriate checklists. Sample checklists appear at the end of this chapter on pp. 150-159.
3. Field test the material with the students. Books may be field tested to determine their difficulty using the cloze procedure (see pp. 160-162 below).

The district should not assume any one textbook will be at an appropriate level for all students. Generally, textbook reading is harder than narrative reading. Consequently, the teacher must be prepared to offer deliberate instruction in how to comprehend the textbook more effectively. Teachers may field test books to find ones that are easy to read. We suggest, instead, that they find books that would challenge but not frustrate students and that teachers be committed to improve students' textbook reading skills.

The ideal way to become familiar with the material would be to use all three procedures above, but this may not always be feasible. The staff simply may not have the time, or the district may not have the money to actually field test the material. Compromises may have to be made; yet the district needs to remember that if materials are selected before people become familiar with them, undesirable consequences are likely to follow.

Judging the materials. To judge instructional materials involves comparing the material to criteria for judgment. To facilitate this process a district could use the "Judgment Sheet for Instructional Materials" (page 148). We recommend that the sheet be used as follows:

1. List criteria at the top of the page, one criterion per column. Start with criteria that rate "2" and then those that rate "1" (see page 146). Do not list criteria that rate "0." A hypothetical example is shown below. If the list of criteria is too long to fit on top of the judgment sheet, use a second or even a third judgment sheet.

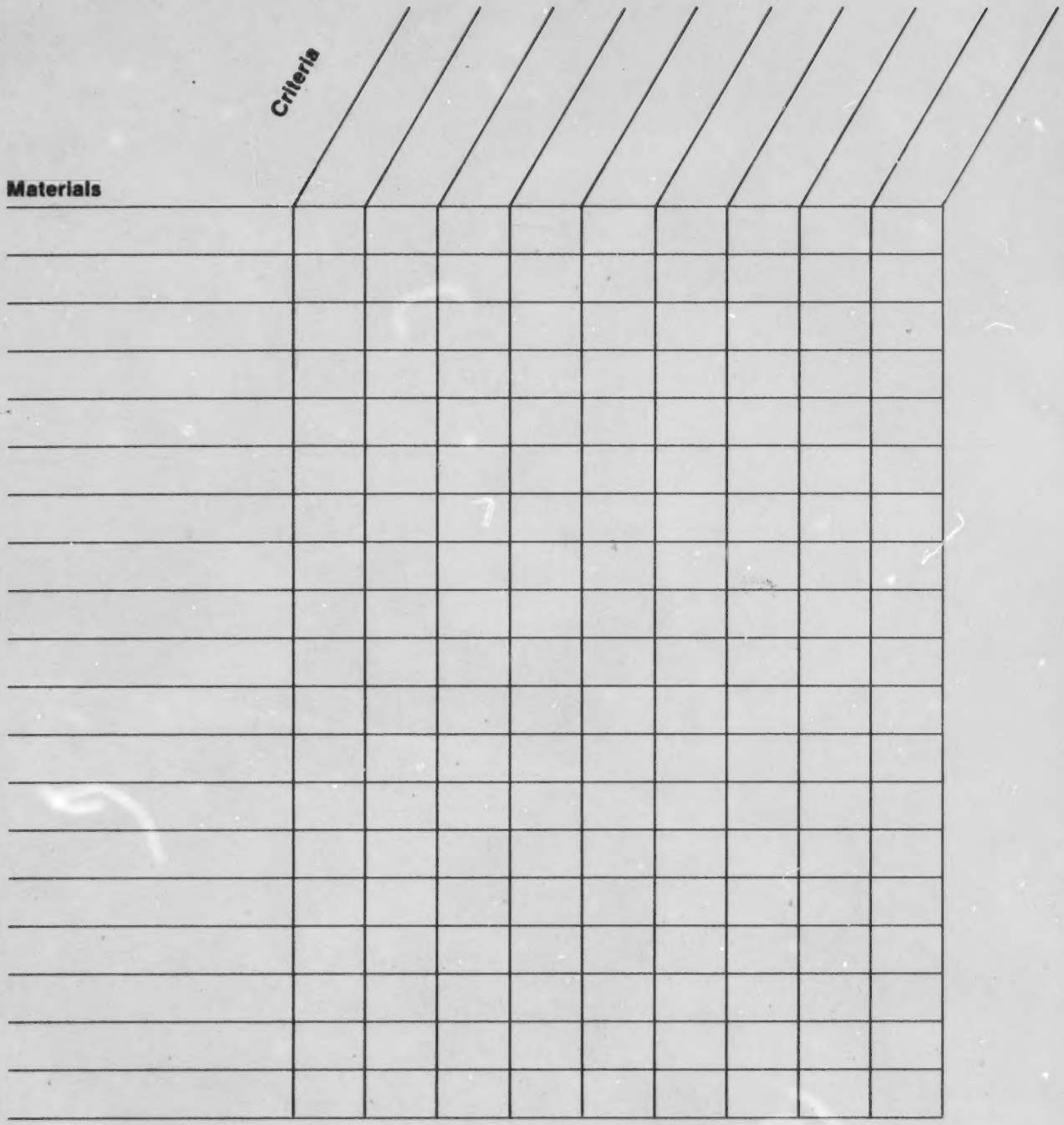


2. List resource materials on the left hand side of the sheet, with one item per line. For example:

Materials						
American Political Behavior						
Comparing Political Experiences						
Decision Making in American Government						
Magruder's American Government						

3. Once steps #1 and #2 are completed, reproduce the judgment sheets and give to the committee that will evaluate the materials.
4. Members of the committee should evaluate the materials using the judgment sheets they received. Division of labor may be useful to lighten the burden on committee members. That is, each person may have responsibility for one, two, or three items, rather than the entire

Judgment Sheet for Instructional Materials



Indicate how well each item fulfills each criterion using the symbols * (excellent), + (good), — (fair), O (poor).

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set. It would be desirable, however, to have each item evaluated by at least two people. Those two people should meet to try to reach agreement on their ratings.

5. Summarize evaluations from the committee for all materials on one sheet, unless the number of criteria was so great that more than one sheet had to be used to evaluate the materials.

Making a decision

There is nothing automatic about making a rational decision at this point. The committee should have a set of tabulated results from Step 5 above. The tabulated results will probably reveal that different materials have unique strengths and weaknesses. These need to be discussed. The rational decision is one that is made by a group who strives to meet needs they have considered important in ways with as few negative consequences as possible. Ideally, the faculty should strive to reach a consensus. In the process of reaching that consensus, they should consider carefully the unique characteristics of the materials in relation to criteria they consider important.

A word about parent and student involvement

Parents and students have a right to be concerned with what textbooks are being used. Consequently, local educators should welcome their input at various points in the textbook selection process. There are three places, for example, where they could play constructive roles:

1. They could help determine what objectives are essential in the K-12 program (see Chapter V).
2. They could participate in the process of stating and weighing criteria (see pp. 145-146).
3. Finally, once the professional staff reaches its decision on which textbook(s) it favors, it could report to the parents, show them the book(s) selected, explain the merits of the book (as well as some of the likely shortcomings), and ask for parents' comments.

A useful reference on parent involvement is "Recommended Guidelines for Textbook Selection, Policies, and Procedures," which was noted above on page 143.

School administrators should select parents to participate in this process (a) who are respected by others in the community, (b) who represent the school population within the community, and (c) who would have a genuine interest in participating in such processes.

No matter how rational the selection processes and no matter how parents were involved in selecting instructional materials, it is always possible that the materials selected could become a source of controversy. Indeed, controversy over social studies materials should be anticipated, since it is rare that the patrons of school districts are of one mind. They vary in their beliefs, in their politics, in their interpretations of history, and in their notions of the proper purposes of education. Consequently, a book some parents consider to be excellent others may dislike.

If a person has a complaint about a book being used in social studies, it is important that the School Board have in its rules a set of procedures for hearing the complaint and that those procedures be designed to prevent polarization in the community, especially polarization between educators and noneducators. The local district's procedures might include requiring that complaints be filed in writing and that a committee of locally respected educators and noneducators be selected to study the complaints and file its recommendation to the School Board. It is important that the committee in its meetings or hearings examine the complaints in the light of the district's objectives and the diverse values of the *entire* community. Perhaps, a local judge or attorney could be consulted to get advice on effective, fair procedures. A useful resource, which should be read *before* a problem comes up, is *The Censorship Game and How to Play It* by C. Benjamin Cox (Bulletin 50, National Council for the Social Studies, 1977).

Checklist to examine specific social studies curriculum materials in a systematic way

Before selecting one textbook or curriculum package from several, it is important that local educators understand significant characteristics of those materials. This checklist is designed to help local educators discover those significant characteristics.

Title _____

Authors _____

_____

_____

Publisher _____

Copyright _____

I. General Characteristics

Briefly answer each question below:

1. How is the book bound/packaged? How durable are the materials? _____
2. What components make up the entire package of materials produced by the publisher for this course or grade level? (1) _____, (2) _____, (3) _____, (4) _____, (5) _____, (6) _____, (7) _____.
3. What is the cost of each component? (1) _____, (2) _____, (3) _____, (4) _____, (5) _____, (6) _____, (7) _____.
   Total cost per pupil _____.
4. For what courses or units is this material appropriate?
   _____
   _____
5. For what grade level(s) was this material designed?
   _____, _____, _____, _____, _____, _____, _____.
6. For what period of time would this material be used (e.g., quarter, semester, year, two years, etc.)?
   _____
7. How many pages in length is the book?
   _____

Comments:

II. Format

To what extent does the book make use of the fifteen items listed below? Mark Items 1-12 for the body-of-the-book format; mark Items 13-15 for the end-of-the-book format.

Item	Little/No Use		Moderate Use		Extensive Use	
	Chapters	Units	Chapters	Units	Chapters	Units
1. Introductions to Units and Chapters						
2. Division of Text into Subunits						
3. Timelines						
4. Maps						
5. Tables and Figures						
6. Photographs						
7. Art Reproductions						
8. Key Terms are Highlighted						
9. Questions for Thought/ Discussion*						
10. Extending Activities*						
11. Recommended Readings						
12. Test Items						
13. Comprehensive Index						
14. Bibliography						
15. Glossary of Terms						

Comments:

*What type of questions and activities are emphasized (ones to develop skills, ones to promote recall of facts, ones to promote understanding of main ideas, ones to encourage inquiry, or ones to promote debate, value clarification, or decision making)?

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III. Appropriateness for Students

1. Difficulty of text. Use all students or take a random sample of students, and use the cloze procedure* to find out the following:

   Percentages of students who could read the book at these levels:

   a. Independent level _____
   b. Instructional level _____
   c. Frustration level _____

2. To what extent does the text include features that the teacher could use to help students comprehend the book effectively? (Check 1) **Comments:**

   To a great extent _____
   To a moderate extent _____
   To little or no extent _____

3. To what extent would the book be of interest to students? **Comments:**

   To a great extent _____
   To a moderate extent _____
   To little or no extent _____

IV. Objectives and Evaluation

Check "yes" or "no" for each item:

	Yes	No
1. Are **general objectives** listed?	_____	_____
a. Are *general cognitive objectives* listed?	_____	_____
b. Are *general affective objectives* listed?	_____	_____
c. Are *general skill objectives* listed?	_____	_____
d. Are evaluation strategies suggested for the general objectives in the text or teacher's guide?	_____	_____
2. Are **specific objectives** listed?	_____	_____
a. Are *specific cognitive objectives* listed?	_____	_____
b. Are *specific affective objectives* listed?	_____	_____
c. Are *specific skill objectives* listed?	_____	_____
d. Are evaluation strategies suggested for the specific objectives in the text or teacher's guide?	_____	_____
3. Are *varied strategies* suggested for evaluation (i.e., mix of objective items, evaluation of writing samples, evaluation of student behaviors, etc.)?	_____	_____

4. Check to what extent the objectives seem consistent with and supportive of the local district's objectives, using the form on the next page.

*The cloze procedure is described below on pp. 160-162.

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Categories of local objectives (Different districts use their own categories. E.g., history, geography, economics, etc. *or* cognitive, affective, skill, *or* something else).	Check one of the following: Very Consistent/ Supportive	Somewhat Consistent Supportive	Not Consistent/ Supportive
a.			
b.			
c.			
d.			
e.			
f.			

Comments:

V. Content

1. Check to what extent the book emphasizes the following approaches to content:

Approaches to Content	Heavy Emphasis	Moderate Emphasis	Little/No Emphasis
a. Students are to memorize information.			
b. Students are to be involved in inquiry (similar to historian, economist, etc., conducting inquiry).			
c. Students are to understand and use social science concepts.			
d. Students are to accept the values/value positions of the book.			
e. Students are to study social issues/ethical questions and learn to make decisions regarding them.			
f. Students are to be involved in clarifying their own value priorities in personal as well as social matters.			
g. Students are to understand the past and present better by reading case studies and participating in simulations.			
h. Other:			

Comments:

2. Check to what extent the book emphasizes the following subject areas:

Discipline/Content Emphasis	Heavy Emphasis	Moderate Emphasis	Little/No Emphasis
a. History			
U.S.			
European/American			
Asian/African			
b. Political Science			
c. Economics			
d. Sociology			
e. Anthropology			
f. Psychology			
g. Geography			
h. Law-Related Education			
i. Career Education			
j. Social Issues			
k. Moral Education			
l. Global Perspectives			
m. U.S. National Perspective			
n. Multi-ethnic Studies			
o.			
p.			
q.			

Comments:

VI. Teaching Strategies Emphasized

To what extent would one use the following teaching strategies with this textbook/curriculum package?

	Very Much	Somewhat	Little
1. Lecture			
2. Discussion to Review Text Content			
3. Inquiry			
4. Simulation/Role Play			
5. Open-ended Discussions: Predicting			
6. Open-ended Discussions: Making Decisions			
7.			
8.			

To what extent would students be doing the following with this textbook/curriculum package?

	Very Much	Somewhat	Little
1. Read			
2. Listen			
3. Write			
4. Recall/Review in Discussion			
5. Interpret, Predict			
6. Evaluate, Debate, Defend Positions			
7. State Opinions			
8. Analyze Documents/Primary Sources			
9.			
10.			

Comments:

VII. Freedom from Biases

Check answers to the following items. Leave blank items that are not appropriate to the book.

Items	Very Much	Somewhat	Little
1. To what extent are various cultural/ethnic groups and both sexes represented in the book?			
2. To what extent does the book emphasize contributions of minority men and women to U.S. history/society or world history/civilization?			
3. To what extent does the book present instances of intergroup tensions and social problems frankly and objectively?			
4. To what extent does the book emphasize the U.S. is a society with varieties of peoples and value systems?			
5. To what extent does the book emphasize the "core values" of American society?			
6. To what extent does the book identify realistically the forces that have placed some cultural groups at a disadvantage in the U.S. and elsewhere?			
7. To what extent is this book free from race/ethnic stereotyping?			
8. To what extent is this book free from sex stereotyping?			
9. To what extent is this book free from ethnocentrism (the idea that other peoples/social values should be evaluated by "American standards, not their own standards")?			
10. To what extent does the book portray differences between other cultures and ours as signs of backwardness of the other culture?			
11. To what extent does the book try to help students understand the value systems of peoples from other cultures?			

Comments:

VIII. Scholarship

Three approaches may be taken to answer the questions below:

- Have a scholar with expertise in the book's subject matter review the book and answer the questions below.
- Find reviews of the book by scholars and social studies educators.
- Develop the expertise to answer the questions below.

Publications of the National Council for the Social Studies and the Social Science Education Consortium are useful for the last two approaches. One may, for example, write SSEC to request reference sheets on the subject under consideration (U.S. history, economics, geography, etc.) or one may ask SSEC if it has any reviews of the book(s) under consideration. The Asia Society and Joint Council on Economic Education have both reviewed textbooks from their perspectives. The following questions should be addressed:

1. What important questions and topics are:
   (a) emphasized by this book/curriculum package?

   (b) omitted from this book/curriculum package?

2. What important concepts are:
   (a) emphasized?

   (b) omitted?

3. To what extent are the subject area and the areas of controversy among scholars within the subject area presented accurately and fairly?

4. To what extent is the method of inquiry of the subject area portrayed accurately?

5. To what extent does this book/instructional package seem to be free from factual errors?

Comments:

Comments based on the entire checklist:

Media Evaluation Checklist*

Title _____ **Producer** _____

Subject _____ **Copyright** _____

Check to indicate the type of media product being evaluated:

____ Filmstrip—Silent ☐; Sound, cassette ☐; Sound, record ☐

____ Transparency

____ Audio recording—cassette ☐; reel-to-reel ☐; disc ☐

____ Videotape—¾" cassette ☐; ½" cassette ☐; reel-to-reel ☐

____ Kit (combination of variety of material packaged as a unit)

____ Super 8 mm film—silent ☐; sound ☐; film loop ☐

____ 16 mm film

____ Other—specify: _____
(magazine, poster, slides, map, globe, etc.)

Carefully evaluate using the following criteria and checking the appropriate columns:

	Out-standing	Satis-factory	Unsatis-factory
1. Correlates with curriculum.			
2. Authentic, accurate, and up-to-date.			
3. Effective organization.			
4. Artistic quality of product.			
5. Provides for various student modes of learning.			
6. Appeals to interests of students.			
7. Durability for amount of expected use and its ease of handling.			
8. Technical quality of material (clear pictures, color, sound quality, etc.).			
9. Teacher's guide and/or explanatory material.			
10. Material achieves its purpose.			

11. Grade levels (check one or more boxes)
P ☐ I ☐ J ☐ H ☐ A ☐

12. Classified as
Basic ☐ Supplementary ☐ Enrichment ☐

On the basis of its conformance to the evaluative criteria, would you recommend this type of media be adopted? YES ☐ NO ☐

*This media checklist was adapted from one developed by Hazelwood School District of St. Louis County.

Comments:

Evaluator and School

Date

Media Selection Committee

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The Cloze Test Procedure

I. Construction

Select three prose samples of about 250 words each (poetry and drama will not work) from near the beginning, middle, and end of the textbook or selection. Type the first sentence in each sample in its entirety. Somewhere in the second sentence start deleting words and replacing them with numbered blanks of uniform length. (The length of the blank should not be a clue to the length of the deleted word.) Continue deleting every fifth word, regardless of what it is, until you have deleted a total of 50 words. Finish the sentence in which the 50th deletion occurs, and copy the next sentence in its entirety. Follow these steps for each of the three samples. (See the example on pages 161-162.)

II. Administration

Tell the students to scan the whole test before they begin. Direct them to replace the deleted words with those they feel were originally used by the author of the selection. (Use of separate answer sheet is recommended.)

III. Scoring

With the exception of minor misspellings, *only exact word replacements may be counted as correct.* No synonyms!

To find the percent correct for each sample, multiply the number correct by 2. (10 correct out of 50 = 20%)

Find the average percent for the three samples. Example:

Sample 1 — 50%	
Sample 2 — 65%	53.3%
Sample 3 — 45%	$3 \overline{)\ 160}$
Total	160

IV. Interpreting Scores

The average percent score for the three samples is used to determine the student's comprehension level for the text.

59 - 100% correct—independent reading level
44 - 58% correct—instructional level (the student will need help)
0 - 43% correct—frustration level (this material is too difficult)

Answer Key ("Missouri Negroes Between the Two World Wars")

1. out
2. flooding
3. 1,000,000
4. could
5. War
6. the
7. Badly
8. for
9. factories
10. houses
11. the
12. available
13. the
14. streaming
15. labor
16. Missouri
17. New
18. other
19. rural
20. and
21. and
22. a
23. who
24. day
25. of
26. in
27. shipyards
28. declared
29. 1917
30. men
31. were
32. soldier
33. in
34. to
35. democracy
36. his
37. the
38. the
39. promised
40. The
41. out
42. for
43. soldiers
44. when
45. became
46. institution
47. intolerance
48. Ku
49. the
50. coast

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Missouri Negroes Between the Two World Wars*

World War I gave to blacks all over the country opportunities to improve their lot in life. When the War broke 1. _____, immigrants, who had been 2. _____ the country at about 3. _____ a year since 1900, 4. _____ not leave Europe.

The 5. _____ made the United States 6. _____ workshop of the world. 7. _____ in need of laborers 8. _____ mines, railroads, shipyards, automobile 9. _____, flour and meat packing 10. _____, white employers looked to 11. _____ only source of labor 12. _____—Southern blacks.

Blacks by 13. _____ thousands answered the demand, 14. _____ north to fill the 15. _____ gap. As Negroes left 16. _____ cities for Detroit, Pittsburgh, 17. _____ York, Cleveland, Chicago and 18. _____ northeastern cities, blacks from 19. _____ Missouri entered the factories 20. _____ railroads of St. Louis 21 _____ Kansas City. It was 22. _____ hey day for Negroes 23. _____ could make $5 a 24. _____ in the Ford factories 25. _____ Detroit and similar wages 26. _____ the iron-steel factories and 27. _____.

When the United States 28. _____ war on Germany in 29. _____, some 20,000 Negro fighting 30. _____ volunteered, many of whom 31. _____ from Missouri. The Negro 32. _____ had a double purpose 33. _____ fighting: the first was 34. _____ save the world for 35. _____ and second was 36. _____ belief that victory by 37. _____ allies would gain him 38. _____ full citizenship so long 39. _____, but so long denied.

40. _____ post-war years, however, held 41. _____ small hope of improvement 42. _____ the Missouri Negro. Negro 43. _____ were beaten and lynched 44. _____ they returned home. America 45. _____ intolerant and reactionary.

No 46. _____ reflected this wave of 47. _____ better than the newly-revived 48. _____ Klux Klan. By 1920, 49. _____ Klan had 100,000 members 50. _____ to coast. For a few years in the mid-twenties the Klan was very powerful in Missouri and according to the Jefferson City *Tribune* in 1926, figured in local politics.

*Dr. Lorenzo J. Greene, Antonio F. Holland, and Gary Kremer, "The Role of the Negro in Missouri History, 1719-1970" in Thelma P. Goodwin, ed., *Official Manual, State of Missouri, 1973-1974*. Jefferson City: Office of the Secretary of State, 1973.

Name _____

Directions: Scan "Missouri Negroes Between the Two World Wars." On this sheet list the word you would choose for each blank tc help the selection make sense.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____
11. _____
12. _____
13. _____
14. _____
15. _____
16. _____
17. _____
18. _____
19. _____
20. _____
21. _____
22. _____
23. _____
24. _____
25. _____
26. _____
27. _____
28. _____
29. _____
30. _____
31. _____
32. _____
33. _____
34. _____
35. _____
36. _____
37. _____
38. _____
39. _____
40. _____
41. _____
42. _____
43. _____
44. _____
45. _____
46. _____
47. _____
48. _____
49. _____
50. _____

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Chapter IX
Evaluation in Social Studies

This chapter is organized around the following topics:

1. Evaluation—an integral part of social studies education.
2. Suggestions for Evaluation.
   a. A General Approach to Evaluation.
   b. Districtwide Evaluations of Programs.
   c. Evaluations of Individual Students.
   d. Evaluating Students Using Test Items.
   e. Evaluating Students Using Checklists.

Evaluation—an integral part of social studies education

Education involves at the minimum a teacher deciding what students should learn and helping them learn those things. The teacher may be very conscientious in planning and in teaching; yet it remains an open question whether students will have learned what the teacher intended that they learn.

"Evaluation" as used in this chapter refers to those efforts taken to collect and examine data related to educational programs for the purpose of making judgments about the program or student learning.

Many local educators in Missouri respond positively to the challenge of evaluation. Determining priority objectives and whether students are learning them is just as important to teaching as checking to see that corners are square is to carpentry. Below are some examples of positive efforts of Missouri educators to evaluate their programs.

- A school district examined objectives of Missouri's Statewide Assessment program to decide which of those objectives were important for social studies. The district gave its twelfth graders the assessment instrument and compared student performance with the level of performance it desired. As a result, the district decided to change its secondary social studies course offerings and requirements.
- A teacher begins each unit by giving the students a copy of the objectives. She discusses with students the importance of those objectives, asks students to add additional objectives that seem important to them, and discusses with students the question of how they could evaluate their own progress ("How could you convince someone else you have mastered this objective?")
- A district is developing items to measure objectives in its scope and sequence.
- Following each unit, a teacher asks students to write down how they felt about the unit, how they would advise the teacher to teach the unit differently next year.
- Before teaching a new unit a teacher shows his plans to other teachers to get their suggestions. The other teachers suggest some changes in the objectives, as well as additional resources and activities.

Discussing objectives with students, even young children, can be very effective in increasing motivation to learn.

Instrument to Set Up and Survey Curriculum

Purposes of Lessons	Concrete Information (Vocab., etc.)	Abstract Concepts	Activities—Thinking and Doing	Audiovisual Support	Text Support	Related BEST Objectives
To introduce the Constitution as the basic governmental framework; structure of U.S. government; functions of each branch	Preamble posterity domestic tranquility Artilces I,II, and III Legislative Branch bicameral House of Representatives Senate Executive Branch President Cabinet Regulatory Agencies Judicial Branch Supreme Court Courts of Appeals District Courts	Separation of powers Functions of law Legislate=make law Execute=enforce, carry out law Adjudicate=interpret laws Due process Constitution=supreme law of the land	Simulate how a bill becomes a law Simulate Electoral college and presidential campaign. Local judge speaks on constitution as the supreme law of the land	National Geographic and New York Times filmstrips and records National Geographic and New York Times-A.P. Lobbyists, filmstrips and records	Constitution in the book's appendix Of, By, For People (Benefic Press) Unit Two Unit Three Unit Four	I II,VI V,VI I,VI
Constitution, a Living Document: Amendments	Learn Bill of Rights	Local Court Systems and consequences of crossing the law, plus how courts resolve disputes.	Local Lawyer	Disney Law Series	Unit Five	III, IV

- A junior high teacher designed the instrument shown on page 164 to help in the development of social studies units. The instrument is used to judge, prior to teaching, whether the purposes and content of the unit are clearly in mind, whether the activities and resources are in place and related to the purposes and content, and whether the purposes, activities, and resources relate to objectives of the Missouri Basic Essential Skills Test. Use of the instrument is an example of evaluating instructional plans prior to their implementation.

Local educators should be proud of such efforts, for they would help the teacher or local faculty improve the effectiveness of the local program in terms of what students learn. The remainder of this chapter will offer additional suggestions for evaluation.

Suggestions for evaluation

Evaluation is a highly complex intellectual task that requires the use of problem-solving skills. It involves several steps:

1. **Determine what is to be evaluated.** Possibilities include:
   - K-12 program
   - courses
   - units
   - lessons
   - instructional materials
   - teaching strategies
   - student learning
   -
   -

2. **Determine purpose(s) for the evaluation.** Possibilities include:
   - To judge the worth of the objectives.
   - To judge the quality of instructional plans (lesson plans, unit plans, courses of study).
   - To assess to what extent students are mastering important objectives.
   - To determine what grades to give students.
   - To learn about the students' concepts related to government, economics, morality, etc.
   - To determine whether specific assignments and activities accomplish their purposes.
   - To become aware of other outcomes of instruction besides those intended—the "side effects."
   - To judge the appropriateness of instructional materials.
   - To determine the effectiveness of teachers for purposes of retention, advancement, etc.
   - To judge the total program. (i.e., are students learning important ideas and skills under the present program?)
   - To judge whether an experimental social studies program is accomplishing its objectives.
   - To judge whether an experimental program is "more successful" than more traditional programs.
   - To determine whether students are enjoying social studies courses and activities.
   -
   -

3. **Identify alternative ways of conducting the evaluation.** Possibilities include:
   - Testing
   - Observing
   - Interviewing
   - Surveying
   - Using experimental designs
   - Using checklists prepared by professional organizations
   - Subjecting the program to a review by a panel of educators and noneducators
   -
   -

4. **Consider pros and cons of alternatives and select a practical approach to accomplish the purpose(s) of the evaluation (Step 2 above).**
5. **Develop or select the instruments and procedures needed for the evaluation.**
6. **Implement the evaluation plan using the instruments and procedures selected or developed.**
7. **Analyze the data.**
8. **Use the data to make decisions.**
9. **Evaluate the effectiveness of the above steps.**

Part of the complexity of evaluation is that evaluations have some relationship to the philosophic assumptions of the people who conduct the evaluations. For example, two teachers may evaluate students and do so for vastly different reasons based upon their having different philosophies of education. Consider the positions of two hypothetical teachers shown in the box below:

Mr. Com Petition:	Who said life is supposed to be easy? Life is a struggle. My students must work for their grades. I give few A's, and I'm proud of that fact. My tests are hard, and they should be. I want a broad spread of scores so that I can grade on a curve more easily.
Mr. Mac Master:	I give lots of tests, but first I decide what my objectives are. I use tests to see who needs help to master the objectives. I then set up activities so that students can help each other master the course objectives. I'm less interested in grades than in getting to know the capabilities of my students and helping them become more competent.

Both teachers could be teaching the same subject—U.S. history. Both may have the same class load. Both may give the same number of tests. Yet given their different philosophies, both men have different reasons for evaluating, and their evaluation instruments would be vastly different from each other.

Which teacher has the better reasons for evaluating his students? We won't answer that question here. In answering that question many issues are involved: Which approach will help students feel more competent? Which approach will cause students to learn more? Which approach will foster more cooperative behavior? Which approach will foster more competitive behavior? Which outlook is more functional in our society, a competitive one

or a cooperative one? How will the two approaches affect the classroom climate?

Many more issues could be raised. It is, of course, usually easier to raise issues than to resolve them. The question of why to evaluate in specific situations could well be subject for debate, and debate is healthy, for the aims one has for evaluating might well be improved through discussion.

To evaluate a program necessarily involves assessing what students have learned and making judgments about those findings. A major reason for evaluating a program is to improve the program's effectiveness in relation to student learning.

Districtwide evaluation of programs

1. Collect data from several sources, using several methods of data collection. Here are some possibilities:
   - Use test instruments to seek information about student knowledge, skills, and attitudes.
   - Evaluate the program using checklists from professional organizations, such as the *Curriculum Guidelines* of the National Council for the Social Studies and the standards of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.
   - Use questionnaires or interviews of teachers, students, and parents to obtain their reactions to the social studies program.
   - Collect data on the performance of graduates in college/university history and social science courses. (Permission of students is necessary to collect such data on them.)
   -
   -

The Curriculum Guidelines checklist is reproduced below on pages IX 20-24.

2. Identify the criteria for an "adequate social studies program." Here are some possibilities, which may be combined:
   - A social studies program that accomplishes objectives the local district considers important (objectives of Missouri's Basic Essential Skills Test should be included among those).
   - A social studies program whose graduates succeed in social studies-related roles (as students in college history and social science courses, as workers and business people, as parents, and as participants in the community).
   -
   -

3. If the district plans to evaluate students on specific priority objectives, consider using procedures like those cited in Chapter V of this guide to determine which objectives should have priority.

The district may also wish to use the procedures proposed in the Educational Planning Model, Phase I, distributed by the Center for Dissemination of Innovative Programs, Phi Delta Kappa (8th & Union Streets, P.O. Box 789, Bloomington, Ind. 47401).

4. If the district decides to test students on locally-determined high priority objectives, it should consider:
   - Developing its own pool of test items. Several references on pages 174-175 would be helpful in this regard.
   - Using commercially produced tests, or portions of those tests that relate to the priority objectives. For a reference that identifies and describes such tests, see Hoepfer, et al. (1974 and 1976), cited at the end of this chapter. Several Missouri districts have used Missouri's Statewide Assessment instrument for such a purpose. For information on that test, contact the Department of Elementary and Secondary Education.
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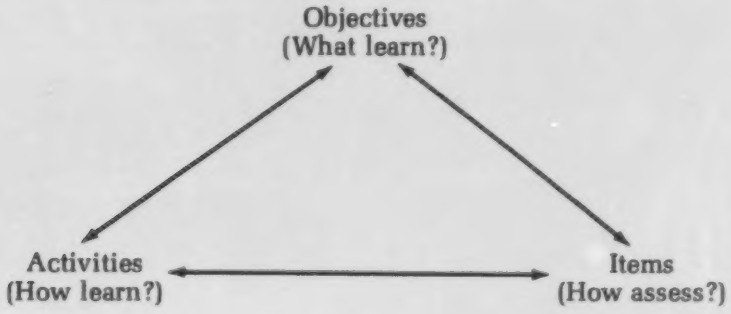
Evaluation of individual students

1. There are many purposes for evaluating students, three being:
   - To help students master priority objectives.
   - To improve the effectiveness of lessons, units, courses, and programs.
   - To determine how well the students would be able to compete with similar students in our society.
2. Consider making students partners in their own evaluations. For example:
   - Inform students about the objectives of instruction prior to instruction.
   - Help them understand the objectives.
   - Ask them to suggest additional objectives they consider important.
   - Ask them how *they* could determine their own progress on the objectives. E.g.: "How could you [the student] decide if you are communicating clearly in writing?" "How could you decide if you can interpret tables like these?" "How could you decide if you understand what you are reading?"
   - Communicate that a goal of your teaching is successful learning for all. Try to create a classroom climate where students give each other feedback on their work.
3. When designing tests for students, consider these ideas:
   - To assure content validity, (a) make certain that the items relate clearly to both the objectives and the instructional activities and (b) make certain the content emphasis on the test is proportional to the content emphasis in the instructional program.



   - Design and use items to help students learn from their own mistakes. Analyze test results with students. (See the suggestion on analyzing multiple choice items on page 173.) Tests can be excellent learning tools. (This idea could be shown by using some tests only as learning experiences—not for grades).
   - Use items that demand from students more thinking than simple recall of information. Books with useful concrete examples of such test items include Banks (1973), Berg (1965), Bloom (1956), and Sanders (1966) (see references at the end of this chapter). Examples of such test items are shown on pages 169-172.

Which types of thought processes are involved depends upon the objectives.

4. Use evaluation strategies that do not rely exclusively on paper-and-pencil test items. Examples of such strategies are shown below. (See pp. 173-174)

Evaluating students using test items

Books have been written on the development of test items, several of which are listed at the end of this chapter. The suggestions and examples that follow are just a few of the many possibilities:

A. Items involving students' categorization of information.

- Give a child two cards, one of which has the word "ANGRY" on it, the other of which has the word "LONELY" on it. Next, give the student ten photographs which show instances of angry and lonely people. Ask students to place photographs of angry people under the card that says "ANGRY" and the photographs of lonely people under the card that says "LONELY."

  This type of card sort could be done with other sets of concepts, such as: consumer and producer; river, ocean, and pond; urban area and rural area; family group and other groups; scenes from today and scenes from the past; and natural resources, labor, capital, and finished products.

  Sometimes, the same photograph could be fit under two categories. In such cases, the teacher would hope the student points out such a problem.

- After studying family life in two cultures, such as Japan and the United States, make up a set of statements that could have been made by an American parent, another set of statements that could have been made by a Japanese parent, and another set of statements that could be made by both American and Japanese parents. Have students identify, through a matching or sorting exercise, who would have made each statement (Japanese parent only, American parent only, or both parents).

- After studying about roles of prosecuting attorneys and defense attorneys in trials, find a description of a trial currently in the news. Take quotations of the defense and prosecuting attorneys. Inform the students about the case to this extent: (a) Who is the defendant? (b) With what crime was the defendant charged? Have students indicate who most likely made the statements quoted, the defense attorney or the prosecuting attorney. A matching format could be used.

- Provide students with clippings from the newspaper to pin on the bulletin board. Have the bulletin board divided into these sections: news reports, editorials, news analyses, classified advertisements, sports, and entertainment. Check to see if students place the clippings in the right categories. (See Objective II B 8.)

- Read to students excerpts from articles about government actions. Have them identify on paper which excerpts are examples of legislative, executive, or judicial actions. (See Objective I E 10 and 11.)

- After studying cultural differences and economic differences in our society, make up a set of statements that could have been made by parents or children from an affluent family, a middle class family, or a low income family.

- After students study two individuals, present them with a set of real or hypothetical statements and ask them to indicate which person would have made the statement. See below for an example.

Many teachers have cultivated the art of developing good test items. Items must be closely related to the objectives and the activities to be valid. Moreover, they ought to be used in ways that will enable students to assess and improve their own learning.

The statements on the left were made by Franklin Delano Roosevelt or Herbert Hoover. Decide who you believe said each statement.

A. Franklin Delano Roosevelt
B. Herbert Hoover

( ) 1. "Men who are going about this country announcing that they are liberals because of their promise to extend the government in business are not liberals; they are reactionaries of the United States."

( ) 2. "Our government . . . owes to everyone an avenue to possess himself of a portion of that plenty sufficient for his needs, through his own work."

( ) 3. "As I see it, the task of government is to assist in the development of . . . an economic constitutional order."

( ) 4. "The day of the great promoter . . . to whom we granted everything if only he would build, or develop, is over."

( ) 5. ". . . [O]ur opponents are appealing to the people in their fear and distress. They are proposing changes and so-called new deals which would destroy the very foundations of American life."

( ) 6. "It is in the further development of this [voluntary] cooperation and a sense of its responsibility that we should find solutions for many of the complex problems and not by the extension of government into our economic and social life."

- Have students categorize statements as factual claims, definitions, or value judgments (see Objective V A 4). For example:

Regardless of whether the following statements are true or false, good or bad, they may be categorized as factual claims, definitions, or value judgments. Mark the category of each statement.

A. Factual claim
B. Value judgment
C. Definition

( ) 1. "The Aztecs believed their gods need to eat human hearts and human blood."

( ) 2. "According to U.S. law human sacrifice is illegal."

( ) 3. "A sacrifice is an offering made to a deity."

( ) 4. "Aztecs should be permitted to practice human sacrifice."

( ) 5. "Aztecs should not be permitted to practice human sacrifice."

( ) 6. "An Aztec is a member of an Indian people whose empire in Mexico the Spanish conquered in 1519."

B. Items involving drawing inferences from data.

In developing questions pertaining to drawing inferences from data two steps are involved: (a) finding the data and (b) drafting the item. The data may consist of primary source material or statistics. Sources of such information are discussed above in Chapter VII (see Activities 35 and 36). The kinds of questions could vary, as the list on the following page suggests:

- *Comprehension*—In other words, what do the statistics tell us? What is the main idea?
- *Comparison*—In what ways are these data similar to *and* different from

certain other data (data which are shown to students or data with which they are familiar)?

- *Contrast*—In what ways are these data different from certain other data?
- *Interpretation*—How does the student account for the data? (E.g., if GNP was shown as rising in the early 1940's, how does the student explain this rise?) What is the significance of the data?
- *If/then consequences*—What are the implications of the data (be it a law, a proposed policy, or a trend)?
- *Analysis*—What are the value and factual assumptions (and perhaps biases) underlying the speech or law? Are the data internally consistent or consistent with other data in this area? (For example, would a student recognize that a rise in cost of living during the early 1930's would be unlikely, given other trends?) Is the evidence strongly in support of the main idea (or thesis) or the proposed decision or policy? Are the data shown biased or not truly representative?
- *Evaluation*—Is the recommendation in the quotation one that the student would support? Why? Why not?

The questions may be in either essay or objective test formats.

C. Essay test items.

Here are a few tips on how to help students improve their skills in responding to essay items.

- Students need to understand what is being asked of them. E.g., if the question calls for a comparison, they need to understand what is meant by the term "compare" or "comparison."
- Until students become proficient in responding to essay questions, give them suggestions for structuring their answers. If the essay is to consist of more than one paragraph, for example, indicate what should be the function of each paragraph, and indicate what will be sought in quality papers.
- Give students a chance to develop their essay-writing skills in non-testing situations. Give them practice evaluating their own and their classmates' essays. (Student essays could be placed on transparencies so that suggestions for improvement could be made by the entire class in discussion. The discussion should evaluate how well the essay accomplishes its purpose.)
- When asking students to write an essay, indicate to them (a) their frame of reference and (b) the audience they are to address. Here is an example:

  Look at the economic indicators shown below. [Reproduce tables from up-to-date news magazine.] If you were the Chief of the Council of Economic Advisors, what would be your main concern about these indicators? Write a brief memorandum of two paragraphs telling the President about your concern. (In the first paragraph summarize the information found in the tables below. In the second paragraph indicate your major concern and indicate why you consider the concern important for the American public.)

A veteran junior high teacher of 37 years who reviewed a draft of this guide offered this comment: "I would require more testing by written essay to give practice in composition. The overuse of multiple choice tests has deprived students of learning to compose paragraphs."

Such an item would be appropriate in an economics course or unit where an understanding of economic indicators is an objective that was emphasized in the instructional program.

D. Multiple-choice items.

Multiple-choice items offer great flexibility and may be used to learn about what students understand and misunderstand. Consider these suggestions when developing multiple-choice items:

- The language should be simple so that student errors are not caused by complex syntax and unfamiliar vocabulary.
- Each question should have one answer that is in fact correct.
- The distractors (incorrect choices) should seem as correct as the correct answer to individuals who are unfamiliar with the content or who do not have the skills being tested.
- Multiple-choice questions can assess complex thinking, as the following examples indicate:

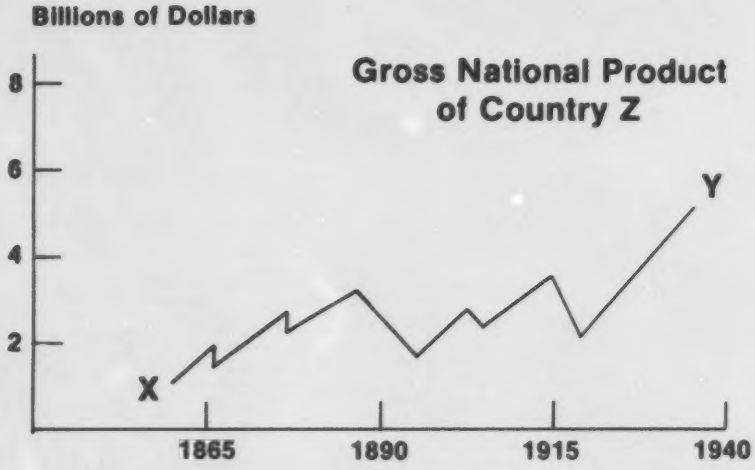
Example 1:
At Crosswinds Shopping Center, all stores rent their space from XYZ Company. Suppose XYZ Company increases rent by a huge amount. Which of the results in the Item Box will most likely happen as a result of the increased rents?

A. Results 1 and 2.
B. Results 1 and 4.
C. Results 2 and 3.
D. Results 3 and 4.

Item Box (Results)

1. Sales clerks will be paid more.
2. Prices of goods sold at the center will cost more.
3. Some stores will move to other locations.
4. Store owners will make more profit.

Example 2:
Look at the chart below and answer the following question:



"When Line XY rises, the production of goods and services is also rising."
If there is no inflation, that statement is

A. definitely true
B. probably true
C. probably false
D. definitely false

Example 3:
Read the following information, which comes from the book *A Civics Casebook*, by Charles N. Quigley, and answer the question that follows:

Eugene V. Debs was the leader of the Socialist Party and had run for President four times. During World War I he made a speech to members of his party. He talked about socialism, and said that he was against the United States being at war with Germany. He also said he believed that the people who had been convicted of trying to stop men from being drafted into the army had done a good thing.

Debs was arrested and tried for breaking a law made during the war. The law said that anyone who said or wrote anything that might make people in our country be against the war could be punished. Eugene Debs was convicted and given a long prison sentence. . . .

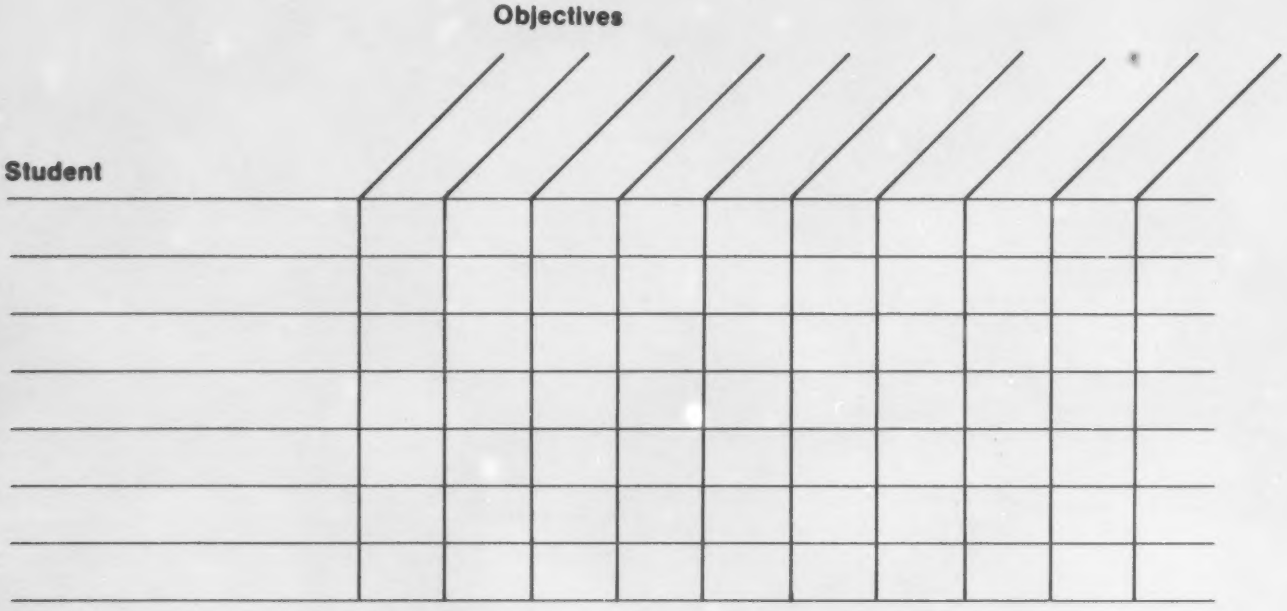
Debs appealed the case to the Supreme Court. He claimed he was denied a Constitutional right. What right would he have claimed he was denied?

A. Freedom of speech
B. Right to trial by jury
C. Protection against double jeopardy
D. Right to run for political office

- Analyze multiple-choice items after using them. Find out which errors were most common. Do these errors reflect student misconceptions, problems with their thinking skills, or knowledge gaps? Do they reflect poorly worded items? (Be suspicious, for example, of items that are missed most frequently by the "brightest" students.) *Discussion of items should be a learning experience for the students.*
- Other objective test item formats are possible. Excellent examples may be found in *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. . .Cognitive Domain*, edited by Benjamin Bloom and others.

Evaluating students using checklists

Not all student evaluations should be paper-and-pencil tests. For example, if a student answers questions correctly in class, one may use this information to infer mastery of specific objectives. Similarly, students may demonstrate mastery of specific objectives in their written assignments. To record student performance one may use a checklist:



Abbreviated versions of the objectives could be placed at the top of each column, and, as the student demonstrates he or she can perform the objective, a checkmark or the date may be listed in the appropriate cell of the matrix.

Separate sheets may also be used for each student, as shown on the next page.

Student _____		
Objectives Mastered	**Date**	**Comments**

Conclusion

Many more examples and suggestions on social studies evaluation could be listed. Those who wish further information are urged to examine references noted below.

References

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Shaver, James P. "*Design Considerations for Classroom Research*". Paper prepared for the annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, Houston, November 23, 1978. (This article is must reading for people preparing evaluations of projects like Title IV-C projects. To get a copy of the paper, write Dr. James P. Shaver, Professor, Bureau of Research Services, College of Education, Utah State University, Logan, Utah 84322.)
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How To Use the Guidelines for Social Studies Needs Assessment

This section provides a *Curriculum Guidelines*-based approach that local districts may use to examine their own social studies programs. The approach can be used for a given grade level, for a school, or for a district-wide program.

An important question to consider first is whom to involve in this analysis. Certainly, social studies teachers and other local curriculum leaders must be involved. In addition, it may be desirable to involve certain lay people, resource people from the university or Department of Education, and high school students who are perceptive and willing to express their views.

The questions used below in the needs assessment instrument are based on the Guidelines. They should be examined from two perspectives: one from that of local priorities, the other from that of the current status of the local program. The *first perspective* is dealt with in the (HP) column, which is concerned with priorities. For each guideline, the members of the curriculum study committee should ask the question, "Is this guideline of *high priority* to us?" If they answer the question "yes," they should check the "HP." For a guideline considered desirable, but not of high priority, the "HP" should simply be left unchecked. Any guideline the local committee considers unimportant or undesirable should be marked out. The *second perspective* is dealt with in the column headed by "CURRENT STATUS." In this case, for each guideline the committee should ask the question, "To what extent is this guideline actually being carried out in our grade (or building or district)?" If the answer is "very often," the "1" should be checked. If the answer is "sometimes" the "2" should be checked, and so on.

Data for the needs assessment may be gathered from many sources. Following each guideline a line is provided so that the local committee may list the most accessible and obvious sources. Sources might include curriculum reports and plans, position statements, faculty and student handbooks, student newspapers, memos, instructional materials available and used, formal evaluation data collected on student competencies, teachers, students, parents, community, and in-classroom and out-of-classroom observation.

Once the instrument is filled out, local educators can feel good about the status of those guidelines that were checked both "HP" and "1." They should feel special concern, on the other hand, about guidelines checked "HP" and "3" and should feel some concern about guidelines checked "HP" and "2." Interpretation of the needs assessment data may reveal patterns, such as students are insufficiently involved, learning resources are inadequate, or purposes are unclear. What is learned from the study should be used to improve the social studies program.

Needs Assessment Instrument Based on the Social Studies Curriculum Guidelines

Directions: *Read each guideline below. Check "HP" for the guideline if it is of high priority to your district. Check 1, 2, or 3 to indicate to what extent the guideline is evident in your district.*

I. Relationship of the Program to the Maturity and Concerns of Students

1.1 Students should be involved in the formulation of goals, the selection of activities and instructional strategies, and the assessment of curricular outcomes. _____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
1.2 The school and its teachers should make steady efforts, through regularized channels and practices, to identify areas of concern to students. _____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
1.3 Students should have some choices, some options within programs fitted to their needs, their concerns, and their social world. _____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
1.4 Students should have a special studies experience at all grade levels, K–12. _____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
1.5 The program should take into account the aptitudes, developmental capabilities, and psychological needs of the students. _____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)

*"How to Use the Guidelines for Social Studies Needs Assessment" is reprinted from the April 1979 issue of Social Education, with permission from the National Council for the Social Studies. Two Missouri educators, Warren Solomon and Mary McFarland, helped produce these guidelines.

II. Relationship of the Program to the Real Social World

2.1 The program should focus on the social world as it is, its flaws, its strengths, its dangers, and its promise.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
2.2 The program should emphasize pervasive and enduring social issues.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
2.3 The program should demonstrate the relationships between the local and global aspects of social issues.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
2.4 The program should include analysis and attempts to formulate potential resolutions or present and controversial global problems such as racism, sexism, world resources, nuclear proliferation, and ecological imbalance.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
2.5 The program should provide intensive and recurring cross-cultural study of groups to which students themselves belong and those to which they do not.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
2.6 The program should offer opportunities for students to meet, discuss, study, and work with members of racial, ethnic, and national groups other than their own.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
2.7 The program should build upon realities of the immediate school community.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
2.8 Participation in the real social world both in school and out should be considered a part of the social studies program.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
2.9 The program should provide the opportunity for students to examine potential future conditions and problems.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)

III. Relationship of Program to Currently Valid Knowledge Representative of Human Beings' Experience, Culture, and Beliefs

3.1 The program should emphasize currently valid concepts, principles, and theories in the social sciences.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
3.2 The program should develop proficiency in methods of inquiry in the social sciences and in techniques for processing social data.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
3.3 The program should develop students' ability to distinguish among empirical, logical, definitional, and normative propositions and problems.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
3.4 The program should draw upon all of the social sciences such as anthropology, economics, geography, political science, history, and the behavioral sciences.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
3.5 The program should draw from other related fields such as law, the humanities, the natural and applied sciences, and religion.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
3.6 The program should represent some balance between the immediate social environment of students and the larger social world; between small group and public issues; among local, national, and global affairs; among past, present, and future directions; among Western and non-Western cultures; and among economically developed and developing nations.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)

3.7 The program should include the study not only of human achievements, but also of human failures.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)

IV. Selection of Objectives; How Objectives Guide Program

4.1 Objectives should be carefully selected and formulated in the light of what is known about the students, their community, the real social world, and the fields of knowledge.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
4.2 Knowledge, abilities, valuing, and social participation should all be represented in the stated objectives of social studies programs.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
4.3 General statements of basic and long-range goals should be translated into more specific objectives conceived in terms of behavior and content.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
4.4 Classroom instruction should rely upon statements which identify clearly what students are to learn; learning activities and instructional materials should be appropriate for achieving the stated objectives.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
4.5 Classroom instruction should enable students to see their goals clearly in what is to be learned, whether in brief instructional sequences or lengthy units of study.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
4.6 Instructional objectives should develop all aspects of the affective, cognitive, and psychomotor domains.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
4.7 Objectives should be reconsidered and revised periodically.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)

V. Nature of Activities

5.1 Students should have a wide and rich range of learning activities appropriate to the objectives of their social studies program.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
5.2 Activities should include formulating hypotheses and testing them by gathering and analyzing data.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
5.3 Activities should include using knowledge, examining values, communicating with others, and making decisions about social and civic affairs.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
5.4 Students should be encouraged to become active participants in activities within their own communities.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
5.5 Learning activities should be sufficiently varied and flexible to appeal to many kinds of students.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
5.6 Activities should contribute to the students' perception of teachers as fellow inquirers.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
5.7 Activities must be carried on in a climate which supports students' self-respect and opens opportunities to all.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)

5.8 Activities should stimulate students to investigate and to respond to the human condition in the contemporary world. ____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
5.9 Activities which examine values, attitudes, and beliefs should be undertaken in an environment that respects each student's rights to privacy. ____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)

VI. Relationship Between Instruction and Range of Learning Resources

6.1 A social studies program requires a great wealth of appropriate instructional resources; no one textbook can be sufficient. ____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
6.2 Printed materials must accommodate a wide range of reading abilities and interests, meet the requirements of learning activities, and include many kinds of material from primary as well as secondary sources, from social science and history as well as the humanities and related fields, from other nations and cultures as well as our own, from current as well as basic sources. ____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
6.3 A variety of media should be available for learning through seeing, hearing, touching, and acting, and calling for thought and feeling. ____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
6.4 Social studies classrooms should draw upon the potential contributions of many kinds of resource persons and organizations representing many points of view, a variety of abilities, and a mix of cultures and nationalities. ____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
6.5 Classroom activities should use the school and community as a learning laboratory for gathering social data and for confronting knowledge and commitments in dealing with social problems. ____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
6.6 The social studies program should have available many kinds of work space to facilitate variation in the size of groups, the use of several kinds of media, and a diversity of tasks. ____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)

VII. Relationship of Social Studies Program to Students' Experiences

7.1 Structure in the social studies program must help students organize their experiences to promote growth. ____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
7.2 Learning experiences should be organized in such manner that students will learn how to continue to learn. ____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
7.3 The program must enable students to relate their experiences in social studies to other areas of experience. ____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
7.4 The formal pattern of the program should offer choice and flexibility. ____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)

VIII. Nature of Local Program Evaluation

8.1 Evaluation should be based primarily on the school's own statements of objectives as the criteria for effectiveness. ____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
8.2 Included in the evaluation process should be assessment of progress not only in knowledge, but in skills and abilities including thinking, valuing, and social participation. ____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)

8.3 Evaluation data should come from many sources, not merely from paper-and-pencil tests, including observations of what students do outside as well as inside the classroom. _____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
8.4 Regular, comprehensive, and continuous procedures should be developed for gathering evidence of significant growth in learning over time. _____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
8.5 Evaluation data should be used for planning curricular improvements. _____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
8.6 Evaluation data should offer students, teachers, and parents help in the course of learning and not merely at the conclusion of some marking period. _____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
8.7 Both students and teachers should be involved in the process of evaluation. _____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
8.8 Thoughtful and regular re-examination of the basic goals of the social studies curriculum should be an integral part of the evaluation program. _____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)

IX. Local Support for Social Studies Education as an Integral Part of the School Program

9.1 Appropriate instructional materials, time, and facilities must be provided for social studies education. _____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
9.2 Teachers should not only be responsible but should be encouraged to try out and adapt for their own students promising innovations such as simulation, newer curricular plans, discovery, and actual social participation. _____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
9.3 Decisions about the basic purposes of social studies education in any school should be as clearly related to the needs of its immediate community as to those of society at large. _____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
9.4 Teachers should participate in active social studies curriculum committees with decision-making as well as advisory responsibilities. _____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
9.5 Teachers should participate regularly in activities which foster their professional competence in social studies education: in workshops, or in-service classes, or community affairs, or in reading, studying, and travel. _____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
9.6 Teachers and others concerned with social studies education in the schools should have competent consultants available. _____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
9.7 Teachers and schools should have and be able to rely upon a district-wide policy statement on academic freedom and professional responsibility.	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
9.8 Social studies education should expect to receive active support from administrators, teachers, board of education, and the community. _____	(HP)	(1)	(2)	(3)
9.9 A specific minimal block of time should be allocated for social studies instruction each week. _____				

The above material constitutes the first section of "How To Use the Guidelines for Social Studies Needs Assessment." For information on how to obtain the complete report, please write to the Washington, D.C., office of the National Council for the Social Studies.

Resources for Social Studies Teachers

National Organizations

Many national organizations exist that could help serve the needs of social studies teachers, some of which are listed below. Feel free to expand upon this list.

Organizations serving social studies teachers generally

National Council for the Social Studies
3615 Wisconsin Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20016

This, *the major professional organization for social studies educators*, holds an annual meeting as well as regional meetings for social studies teachers at all levels. The journal, *Social Education*, is its major publication. NCSS also publishes curriculum guidelines, position statements, and bulletins on timely topics in the field. Services include a field service program which facilitates the development of state and local councils and development of curriculum at the local level.

Social Science Education Consortium Publications
855 Broadway
Boulder, Colo. 80302

The SSEC provides information and services to school personnel from elementary through college levels. It produces the *Data Book*, an analysis of materials from the nationally funded projects, innovative textbooks, games and simulations. This reference is a must to assist in the identification and selection of new materials for entire courses or for supplementing existing courses. SSEC also publishes a newsletter and catalog of publications, which are free.

Social Studies School Service
10,000 Culver Boulevard
Culver City, Calif. 90230

Catalog includes maps, games, posters, records, cassettes, photoaids, visual-aids, paperbacks, simulations, transparencies, duplicating books and multi-media programs.

Organizations serving social studies teachers in specific areas*

African-American Institute
School Services Division
833 United Nations Plaza
New York, N. Y. 10017

Seeks to improve the quality and quantity of instruction about Africa. Serves school districts, individual schools and teachers with publications including a variety of teachers' guides, an elementary packet, a secondary-college packet, resource packets and Mini-Modules. A publications list is available.

American Council on Consumer Interests
162 Stanley Hall
University of Missouri
Columbia, Mo. 65211

This organization is a national clearinghouse for consumer economics education that holds conferences and provides publications with up-to-date information about federal, state, and foreign government actions related to consumer affairs, annotated lists of consumer resource materials, and consumer education ideas for its members.

*Organizations and other resources that deal with racism and sexism may be found in the NCSS bulletin *Racism and Sexism: Responding to the Challenge*, edited by Richard L. Simms and Gloria Contreras (Washington, D. C.: NCSS, 1980).

American Newspaper Publishers Association (ANPA) Foundation
P. O. Box 17407
Dulles International Airport
Washington, D.C. 20041

ANPA publishes a bibliography on resources for creative ways to use newspapers in the classroom. Single copies are free.

Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith
315 Lexington Avenue
New York, N. Y. 10016

Founded in 1913 to check discrimination against Jews, it now acts to secure justice and fair treatment for all Americans. Operates through a national office in New York City and 28 regional offices. Publishes the ADL *Bulletin* and many works on contemporary problems.

The Asia Society
Educational Resources/Asian Literature Programs
112 East 64th Street
New York, N. Y. 10021

Focuses on the improvement of instruction regarding Asia. Publications include (1) bibliographic essays, (2) translations from Asian literature for classroom use, (3) curriculum guides, and others. Request a copy of their publications list.

Center for Global Perspectives
Larry Condon, Executive Director
218 East 18th Street
New York, N. Y. 10003

A development, research and consulting agency which helps incorporate global perspectives in the K-12 curriculum. Publications include *Intercom*, a quarterly for educators working with students in grades 9-12. Each issue can be used as a mini-unit or supplement for helping students understand and cope with global problems facing our interrelated world.

Center for Teaching International Relations
University of Denver
Denver, Colo. 80208

CTIR produces materials for classroom use often consisting of tested activities to complement the social studies teacher's existing curricula. CTIR materials focus on developing not only an understanding of today's intercultural/international world, but the basic skills necessary for internalizing such materials.

Council on Interracial Books for Children, Inc.
1841 Broadway
New York, N. Y. 10023

Produces a quarterly bulletin that evaluates trade books and textbooks with an emphasis given to race and sex stereotyping. Produced *Stereotypes, Distortions and Omissions in U.S. History Textbooks*, a content analysis instrument for detecting racism and sexism.

Foreign Policy Association
345 East 46th Street
New York, N. Y. 10017

A nonpartisan organization, FPA offers teacher resources and suggestions for classroom activities on major foreign policy issues. The materials (grade levels 9-12) are open-ended and can be used in a flexible manner to meet the needs of the teacher and students. Some of the materials are adaptable for elementary grades.

Joint Council on Economic Education
1212 Avenue of the Americas
New York, N. Y. 10036

Through its School Service Program, the Council assists school districts in the development of improved economic education programs K-12. Over 300 school systems belong to the DEEP

(Developing Economic Education Programs) network. Publications include a biannual newsletter of new ideas and innovations in economic education. Currently, a *Curriculum Framework* and *Resource Guide in Economic Education K-12* are under development.

League of Women Voters of the United States
1730 M Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

The purpose of the nonpartisan League of Women Voters of the United States is to promote political responsibility through informed and active participation of citizens in government. Publications useful to the classroom teacher are available at a nominal cost. Catalog is available upon request.

National Council of Geographic Education
Department of Geography
University of Houston
Houston, Tex. 70774

Promotes the background and learning of geography at all levels with special attention to elementary and secondary levels. Holds an annual meeting as well as state and regional meetings. Publishes resource materials that identify audiovisual resources and instructional activities. Its regular publication is the *Journal of Geography*. Also publishes the *Pacesetter Series* on significant topics in geographic education.

Population Institute
110 Maryland Avenue, N.E.
Washington, D.C. 20036

Promotes the infusion of population education into existing curricula. Publications include (1) content outlines that tie population with such subjects as world geography, U.S. history and biology; (2) "Population and Human Development; A Course Curriculum Including Lesson Plans, Activities and Bibliography"; (3) *Population Issues*, a bimonthly newsletter.

Prime Time School Television
120 South LaSalle Street
Chicago, Ill. 60603

Promotes the use of quality television programs to enhance social studies. PTST members receive advance information on television programs together with study guides to help them use those programs with their students.

Special Committee on Youth Education for Citizenship
American Bar Association
1155 East 60th Street
Chicago, Ill. 60637

Promotes law-related education nationally, serving as a clearinghouse. Produces a magazine on law for teachers, *Update on Law-Related Education*, an annotated bibliography on law-related materials, a media list, and other publications for teachers interested in helping students understand our legal system.

U.S. Commission on Civil Rights
Washington, D.C. 20425

Produces reports related to equal rights and the treatment of minorities and women. These may be used effectively by social studies teachers.

UNA-USA
300 East 42nd Street
New York, N. Y. 10017

Produces materials for teachers on international issues, on the United Nations, and about global studies.

U.S. Committee for UNICEF
331 E. 38th Street
New York, N. Y. 10016

Informative brochures and booklets for a variety of age groups are available. Books and games for children focus on the lives of children in faraway lands. Teacher's kits and materials can be used to interpret UNICEF for the children. Visual aids include wall sheets, photo sets, films, filmstrips and slides.

Organizations in Missouri

Missouri Council for the Social Studies

MSTA Department of Social Studies

Both groups produce newsletters and sponsor meetings for elementary and secondary teachers of social studies. For information on how to join, contact the Curriculum Office of the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education or the organizations.

Asia Resource Center
c/o Kathy Pierson, Coordinator
Center for International Studies
8001 Natural Bridge Road
St. Louis, Mo. 63121 (314) 453-5753

The Center conducts workshops for teachers on Asian cultures and sponsors summer travel seminars. it can most readily serve needs of teachers in Metropolitan St. Louis area. The Center is affiliated with the Asia Society. A publication of the Center of interest to Missouri teachers is the *Missouri Guide to Resources on Asia*.

Centers for Economic Education:

- **Dr. Wayne Ewbank, Director**
  Southeast Missouri State University
  Cape Girardeau, Mo. 63701 (314) 651-2181
- **Dr. Stephen Buckles, Director**
  University of Missouri-Columbia
  9 Middlebush Hall
  Columbia, Mo. 65211 (314) 882-3803
- **Dr. Carol Gambill, Director**
  Rockhurst College
  5225 Troost
  Kansas City, Mo. 64110 (816) 363-4010
- **Dr. Allan Stone, Director**
  Southwest Missouri State University
  Springfield, Mo. 65802 (417) 836-5350
- **Dr. William Walstad, Director**
  University of Missouri-St. Louis
  8001 Natural Bridge Road
  St. Louis, Mo. 63121 (314) 453-5248

Each center, affiliated with the Joint Council on Economic Education and the Missouri Council on Economic Education, provides workshops, courses, and technical assistance for elementary and secondary teachers in economic education.

Citizenship Education Clearinghouse
Nancy Brown, Director
5331 Enright Avenue
St. Louis, Mo. 63112 (314) 367-6613

Provides in-service workshops, seminars, community contacts, and technical assistance for school districts and teachers interested in helping students in community-based citizenship education. Serves St. Louis Metropolitan area most easily.

Governmental Affairs Program
University of Missouri-Columbia
306 Watson Place
Columbia, Mo. 65211

The Governmental Affairs Program conducts efforts in education, research, and consultation to help Missourians be better informed about issues of public policy and governmental practice. GAP produces publications, some of which may be of interest to teachers who teach about state and local government in Missouri.

League of Women Voters of Missouri
2138 Woodson Rd.
St. Louis, Mo. 63114

The purpose of the league is to promote political responsibility through improved, active participation in government by citizens. The league is nonpartisan and produces publications of interest to social studies teachers.

Missouri Bar Advisory Committee on Citizenship Education
P.O. Box 119
Jefferson City, Mo. 65102 (314) 635-4128

This program, sponsored jointly by The Missouri Bar and the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, has produced a curriculum guide, produces a newsletter, operates a film library, and provides technical assistance for teachers and local school districts.

Missouri Council on Economic Education
Bob Strom, Director
University of Missouri-Columbia
9 Middlebush Hall
Columbia, Mo. 65211 (314) 882-3803

Affiliated with the Joint Council on Economic Education, sponsors statewide workshops and serves as clearinghouse for economic education for the entire state.

The Missouri Council for Geographic Education
Department of Geography
Central Missouri State University
Warrensburg, Mo. 64093

The Council produces the *Missouri Geographer* once a year, publishes a newsletter, and provides a fall field experience and spring meeting for its members. Membership is $2 per year.

Newspapers in Education
For an up-to-date list of participating newspapers, contact
Missouri Press Association
8th and Locust
Columbia, Mo. 65201

Metropolitan newspapers as well as some rural newspapers have programs that make it possible to get quantities of newspapers for classroom use at reduced price. In addition, some of these papers provide newsletters, other publications, courses, and workshops on how to use newspapers in the classroom. Contact the newspapers near you for more information.

United Nations Association
7359 Forsyth Blvd.
St. Louis, Mo. 63105

The UNA has resource material and resource people for intercultural and global education. It has served as a resource for staff development for some Metropolitan St. Louis school districts and for other districts as well.

Museums and Historic Sites

Missouri has numerous museums and historic sites which supply invaluable educational experiences for teachers and students. This portion of the appendix presents many of these and some suggestions on their use. It was prepared by:

Raymond Breun
Curator of Education
Jefferson National Expansion Memorial
11 N. 4th Street
St. Louis, Mo. 63102
(314) 425-4472

and

James Reed, Librarian
Missouri Botanical Garden
P.O. Box 299
St. Louis, Mo. 63166
(314) 577-5100

- **General Museum Information**

For information about the local and county historical museums in the State of Missouri, the best source is the annual list assembled by the State Historical Society of Missouri. For a copy of that list, write:

State Historical Society of Missouri
c/o Director's Office
Hitt and Lowry Streets
Columbia, Mo. 65201 (314) 443-3165

In addition, the Missouri Museums Associates is a voluntary association of the many museums of the state. Writing to either of the people who made this appendix at their addresses given above will put you in contact with the Associates and their current list of members.

- **Museum resources available for use IN SCHOOL and available by mail:**

National Gallery of Art
Extension Program
Washington, D.C. 20565 (202) 737-4215
Slide sets, films and video cassettes

Missouri Botanical Garden
Library and Education Department
P.O. Box 299
St. Louis, Mo. 63166 (314) 577-5100
Slide programs and written material

Jefferson National Expansion Memorial Museum Education Office
11 N. 4th Street
St. Louis, Mo. 63102 (314) 425-6010
Slide programs and films

Missouri Arts Council
706 Chestnut, Suite 925
St. Louis, Mo. 63101
Travelling exhibits

St. Louis Art Museum
Department of Education
Forest Park
St. Louis, Mo. 63110 (314) 726-2316
Slide programs and videocassettes

Mid-America Arts Alliance
Museum Services Coordinator
Twenty West Ninth Street, Suite 550
Kansas City, Mo. 64105 (816) 421-1388
Travelling exhibits and performing arts presentations.

For a complete list of offerings from any or all of these agencies, write or call for information. In nearly all cases, the only cost is for return postage.

• **Museums and Historic Sites**—Places to Visit (listed in zip code order)
MSHS = Missouri State Historic Site
NPS = National Park Service

Cahokia Mounds Museum
8001 Collinsville Road
East St. Louis, Ill. 62201 (618) 344-4750

Landmarks Assn. of St. Louis
Railway Exchange Bldg. Room 2187
611 Olive Street
St. Louis, Mo. 63101 (314) 421-6474

Jefferson National Expansion Memorial (NPS)
Gateway Arch & Old Courthouse
11 North Fourth Street
St. Louis, Mo. 63102 (314) 425-4465

Old Cathedral Museum
Walnut and Memorial Drive
St. Louis, Mo. 63102 (314) 231-3250

Museum of Science and Natural History
Oak Knoll Park
St. Louis, Mo. 63105 (314) 726-2888

St. Louis County Parks and Recreation
7900 Forsyth
St. Louis, Mo. 63105 (314) 889-2458

St. Louis Medical Museum
3839 Lindell Blvd.
St. Louis, Mo. 63108 (314) 371-5225

McDonnell Planetarium
5100 Clayton Road
Forest Park
St. Louis, Mo. 63110 (314) 535-5810

St. Louis Art Museum
Forest Park
St. Louis, Mo. 63110 (314) 721-0067

St. Louis Zoo
Forest Park
St. Louis, Mo. 63110 (314) 781-0900

Missouri Historical Society
Forest Park
St. Louis, Mo. 63112 (314) 361-9265

National Museum of Transport
3015 Barrett Station Road
St. Louis, Mo. 63122 (314) 965-6885

Missouri Botanical Garden
2315 Tower Grove Avenue (P.O. Box 299)
St. Louis, Mo. 63166 (314) 577-5100

First State Capitol (MSHS)
208-216 South Main Street
St. Charles, Mo. 63301 (314) 723-3256

Mark Twain Home Board
208 Hill Street
Hannibal, Mo. 63401 (314) 221-9010

Bethel German Communal
Colony, Inc.
Bethel, Mo. 63434 (816) 284-6493

E. M. Violette Museum
Northeast Missouri State University
Kirksville, Mo. 63501 (816) 665-5121

Felix Valle (MSHS)
P.O. Box 89
Ste. Genevieve, Mo. 63670 (314) 883-7102

Bollinger Mill and Burfordville Covered Bridge (MSHS)
Burfordville, Mo. 63739 (314) 243-4591

Hunter-Dawson (MSHS)
New Madrid, Mo. 63869 (314) 748-5340

Ozark National Scenic Riverways (NPS)
Box 490
Van Buren, Mo. 63965 (314) 323-4236

Harry S. Truman Library and Museum
U.S. 24 and Delaware Streets
Independence, Mo. 64050 (816) 833-1400

Watkins Woolen Mill (MSHS)
Route 2, Box 270M
Lawson, Mo. 64062 (816) 296-3357

Battle of Lexington (MSHS)
Lexington, Mo. 64067 (816) 259-2143

Central Missouri State University Museum
Warrensburg, Mo. 64093 (816) 747-6314

Jackson County Parks and Recreation Department
R.R. 2, Box 408-A
Blue Springs, Mo. 64105 (816) 795-8200

Benton Home (MSHS)
3616 Bellview
Kansas City, Mo. 64111 (816) 931-5722

Nelson Gallery of Art
4525 Oak Street
Kansas City, Mo. 64111 (816) 931-8963

Kansas City Museum
3218 Gladstone Blvd.
Kansas City, Mo. 64123 (816) 483-8300

Kansas City Zoo
Swope Park
Kansas City, Mo. 64132 (816) 333-7406

Pony Express Stables & Museum
11th and Charles Sts.
St. Joseph, Mo. 64501 (816) 232-8471

Albrecht Art Museum
2818 Frederick Blvd.
St. Joseph, Mo. 64506 (816) 233-1305

Locust Creek Covered Bridge
c/o Pershing Home
Laclede, Mo. 64651 (816) 963-2525

Pershing Home (MSHS)
Laclede, Mo. 64651 (816) 963-2525

Truman Birthplace (MSHS)
Lamar, Mo. 64759 (417) 682-2279

Spiva Arts Center
Newman and Duquesne Road
Joplin, Mo. 64801 (417) 623-0183

George Washington Carver
National Monument (NPS)
P.O. Box 38
Diamond, Mo. 63840 (417) 325-4151

Historic Hermann Museum
4th and Schiller Sts.
Hermann, Mo. 65041 (314) 486-2017

Deutschheim (MSHS)
109 West Second Street
Hermann, Mo. 65041 (314) 486-2200

Missouri Heritage Trust
P.O. Box 895
Jefferson City, Mo. 65101 (314) 635-5757

Missouri State Museum
State Capitol
Jefferson City, Mo. 65101 (314) 751-2854

Jefferson Landing and Missouri State Museum (MSHS)
c/o Missouri State Museum
Jefferson City, Mo. 65101 (314) 751-3475

Graham Cave State Park
Box 176, Jefferson Building
Jefferson City, Mo. 65102 (314) 751-3332

Museum of Anthropology
100 Swallow Hall
University of Missouri-Columbia
Columbia, Mo. 65211 (314) 449-9563

Museum of Art & Archaeology
1 Pickard Hall
University of Missouri-Columbia
Columbia, Mo. 65211 (314) 449-8331, ext. 224

State Historical Society of Missouri
Hitt and Lowry Streets
Columbia, Mo. 65201 (314) 443-3165

Winston Churchill Memorial in the United States
7th and Westminster Avenues
Fulton, Mo. 65251 (314) 642-6648

Mark Twain Birthplace (MSHS)
Stoutsville, Mo. 65283 (314) 565-3449

Union Covered Bridge (MSHS)
c/o Mark Twain Birthplace
Stoutsville, Mo. 65283 (314) 565-3449

Arrow Rock (MSHS)
Arrow Rock, Mo. 65320 (816) 837-3392

Boone's Lick
c/o Arrow Rock (MSHS)
Arrow Rock, Mo. 65320 (816) 837-3392

Dillard Mill (MSHS)
Route 286, Box 735
Davisville, Mo. 65456 (314) 244-3120

Meramec Museum
c/o the James Foundation
320 S. Bourbeuse
St. James, Mo. 65559 (314) 265-3527

Ralph Foster Museum
School of the Ozarks
Point Lookout, Mo. 65726 (417) 334-9881

Wilson's Creek National Battlefield (NPS)
Route 2, Box 75
Republic, Mo. 65738 (417) 732-2662

Springfield Art Museum
1111 East Brookside Drive
Springfield, Mo. 65807 (417) 866-2716

University of Kansas
Museum of Art
Lawrence, Kans. 66044 (913) 864-3616

Your own professional library

- Obtain publications of the Social Science Education Consortium (SSEC) and the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS). Their addresses are listed under "National Organizations" in this appendix on page 181.
- An item on the SSEC publications list is "A Social Studies Professional Library." The cost is $1.00.
- The NCSS Journal, *Social Education*, includes book reviews as regular features.

Other libraries

- Many university libraries, especially those which offer social studies education courses for teachers, have many SSEC and NCSS publications, as well as other books of importance for social studies teachers.
- Local public libraries may not have a book you want; yet those libraries can get what you want often enough through the State Library System. Incidentally, the local library can provide information on bills in the state legislature as well as their current status.
- The local school library should be an important source of information for social studies teachers and students. If it is not as strong as it should be, NCSS and SSEC booklists, as well as the Social Studies School Service Catalogue, would offer ideas on how to build it up. Consider ordering *Guide to Reading for Social Studies Teachers*, edited by Jonathan Melendon, Bulletin 46, NCSS, 1973 (cost=$3.75).

Department of Elementary and Secondary Education

- For assistance in social studies program development and evaluation, contact the Curriculum Office of the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, P.O. Box 480, Jefferson City, Mo. 65102 (314) 751-2625.

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